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EDITOR

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER

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I

PRELIMINARY REPORT ON SCHOOL HYGIENE¹

To the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association:

The undersigned, chairman of a committee appointed at the last annual meeting of this Department to report on important topics relating to hygiene in the schools and to make recommendations for the further investigation of the subject, would hereby report that he has held consultation with the several members of his committee by correspondence and in some cases by personal interview, and he finds all to be in favor of recommending a thoro-going investigation and report, to be prepared by experts, the same to relate to the essentials of hygiene and to present not merely ideals regarding the seating of schoolrooms, methods of lighting, heating, and ventilation, but to deal with the practical conditions as they are found existing in the school buildings in the United States.

The Committee was appointed pursuant to the following resolution:

“This Department approves of the plan of creating a committee whose duty it is to make or cause to be made a scien-

¹ A Committee on School Hygiene was appointed by President Schaeffer at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence at Chattanooga, Tenn., February 22-24, 1898, as follows:

W. T. Harris, Washington, D. C.; Frank A. Hill, Boston, Mass.; John R. Kirk, Jefferson City, Mo.; F. L. Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.; A. P. Marble, New York City; E. O. Lyte, Millersville, Pa.; W. E. Wilson, Providence, R. I.; W. L. Bryan, Bloomington, Ind.; W. A. Mowry, Hyde Park, Mass.

tific determination of the factors involved in the subjects of seating, lighting, ventilating, and heating of school buildings; and to this end to prepare and present to this body at the meeting in 1899 a preliminary report setting forth the nature of the problems involved and its recommendation for the further prosecution of the inquiry—said committee to consist of nine members, as follows: The United States Commissioner of Education, two State superintendents of public instruction, two presidents of normal schools, two city superintendents, and two other persons.”

It is taken for granted that the preparation of such a report would need an appropriation of money from the treasury of the Association, and two plans have been proposed, the first of which contemplates the appointment of a committee of experts somewhat after the plan of the Committee of Ten, with an appropriation, to be at least \$2500, or possibly a larger sum. The other plan proposes that a series of five prizes be offered for essays on the essential points of school hygiene, the same to discuss ideals and compare them with conditions that exist in such a manner as to aid the teacher, the superintendent, and the members of school committees to criticise intelligently what they find in operation, apply cheap but effective devices to correct its defects, and decide rightly in regard to new models placed before them for adoption. The expense to the Association may be much less on this plan. It might offer, for instance, only \$100 for each essay, and in that case \$500 would cover the entire expense of the five essays proposed. Or, again, a larger sum, \$200, might be offered, and a total of \$1000 expended.

Whatever scheme should be adopted, your Committee is of the opinion that the report of a committee of experts, or the special prize essays should not undertake to exhaust the subject of school hygiene on the one hand nor deal with vague generalities on the other, but treat of each of the most important topics one by one, and to aid the teacher to make the best of existing conditions and to enlighten public opinion on the subject of hygienic ideals or models.

In the hygienic literature of the time it is believed that

there has not been care enough in discussing the essentials or in setting forth the true theories and establishing them by clear demonstrations. The teacher does not wish mere authorities, mere oracular statements without proof. He wishes the grounds of conviction, the reasons for the principles laid down; for the grounds and reasons help him to think and make him a critical observer.

The existing books on school hygiene often present a bewildering variety of details, some of which are essential and some of which are of very remote utility. They often treat trifling details with as much fullness as those which are vitally important. Another defect is that they give contradictory views on the most important of all topics of school hygiene without critically sifting their grounds and aiding the teacher to choose the better.

The topics named in the resolution adopted at Chattanooga are four in number: (1) seating, (2) ventilation, (3) light, (4) heating. Taking up these topics in their order, illustrations of the above-named will occur readily to anyone familiar with both rural schools and city schools. It will often happen that the visitor sees children in the primary grades and sometimes in upper grades sitting upon benches too high to allow their feet to rest squarely upon the floor. The consequence of this is the congestion of blood in some parts of the lower limbs, and in some cases this may lead to aneurism or varicose veins, and perhaps to other evils quite as bad.

Again it must be admitted that upward of ninety-five per cent. of the school buildings of the United States depend upon windows and doors for ventilation, and instead of controlling currents of fresh air which enter the room by distributing them so that a thin sheet of air will come in only at the top of each window and get warmed before it reaches the floor, it generally happens that the room is carelessly ventilated in all weathers by opening windows at the bottom and by making a large opening at the bottom of one window instead of small openings at the tops of all the windows. It happens, therefore, that a cascade of cold air pours out into the room, reaching the shoulders and necks of the children

seated nearest the window; and while some pupils get too much fresh air other pupils get very little. The pupils seated nearest the windows grow up with tendencies to rheumatism and weak lungs due to colds that they have taken, and to congestions due to currents of air upon their heads and shoulders.

Again, as to lighting the room, the correct principles to be adopted for lighting a schoolroom require that the light shall come from the left side, from the back of the room and from two and one-half to three feet above the floor. The aggregate surface of the windows must bear a certain proportion to the depth of the room and the surface of the floor. The windows must be placed along the wall at stated distances, in such a manner as to distribute the light properly to all parts of the room. It is, however, well known by all inspectors of schoolrooms that one-room schools in rural districts are quite frequently lighted from three sides, and that nearly all of the children sit facing the light. It is true also that in some city schools children are seated so that the light comes from the right side instead of from the left. Even in the cities which pride themselves on the amount of money expended in school buildings and on the enlightened progress which they have made in school architecture it is quite common to find rooms lighted from only one side, whereas the light should come from the left side and from the rear, especially in localities which use soft coal for fuel. In that part of Germany where the plan of lighting schoolrooms from one side originated, it is presumed that the schoolrooms are arranged so as to get northern light only; for a northern exposure does not need the use of blinds or window shades to shut out the direct rays of the sun. Where the only light comes from the east the direct rays of the sun will shine upon the pupil's book or face up to ten or eleven o'clock in the forenoon unless it is excluded by window shades, and, if excluded, the room will not receive sufficient light for pupils on the side of the room farthest from the windows. Again, the room lighted solely from the south must exclude the direct light of the sun from ten in the morning until two in the afternoon from the pupils

who sit nearest the windows. The pupils sitting farthest from the window naturally adopt the habit of holding the books nearer to their eyes when the light is dim, and in this way become nearsighted, and, thru sympathy with the strain upon the eyes in study, the stomach becomes disordered. Nervous dyspepsia and headaches abroad in the community owe their origin to some extent to this defect in school building. Of course the rooms facing the west get direct sunlight after one or two p. m., and incur the same dangers to pupils as the rooms facing to the south or to the east. Rooms that are lighted from the left hand and back of the pupil, having light from two sources, can provide against the alternative of direct sunlight or a deficiency of light. In the time of the Centennial Exposition of Philadelphia the National Educational Association had discussed so fully the necessity of light from two sources in a room, namely from the left side and back, that very few new buildings were constructed with defects in this regard. It was settled that for large buildings there should be four rooms to each floor, one for each corner, and seated so that the pupils would receive light from the left side and rear. Ten or fifteen years later large school buildings began to be built on plans that required six or eight rooms to each floor; besides the four regular schoolrooms occupying the four corners on each floor two or four other rooms were placed between the corner rooms and were lighted only from windows on one side; and this, too, without reference to the point of compass which the windows faced; thus one room received light from the north and the other three rooms respectively from the east, south, and west. A strong child can endure without permanent injury the evils of bad lighting and ventilation if the school attendance amounts to only eighty or one hundred days in a year and he has plenty of exercise in the open air. But where the school attendance runs up to one hundred and fifty to two hundred days, as is customary in cities, bad arrangements for lighting and ventilation become a much more serious matter.

It is understood that rural schools are often heated by an

open fireplace with plentiful use of wood as fuel. Where the chimneys do not smoke this method of heating gives plenty of good ventilation and sufficient heat for the children seated near the fireplace or in the center of the room. Quite naturally the pupils in the outer rows of seats near the walls of the room suffer in cold weather from currents which move down the surface of the windows. After the open fireplace came the box stove, making one part of the room very hot and overheating the top of the room with the stovepipe, while other parts of the room and all places near the floor were cold. Poor ventilation took the place of the good ventilation of the open fireplace and unequal heating still remained. The hot-air furnace, the steam coil, and hot-water pipes succeeded the air-tight stove.

Perhaps the best apparatus used is the costly steam fan, which pours into the room fresh air, first heating it to a proper temperature by passing it over steam coils. Heating and ventilation are so closely connected as to be substantially one process. By the fan propelled by steam fresh air is brought in and the foul air is driven out thru ventilating flues and thru the windows and doors. But this best apparatus is a luxury too costly for most cities. Various devices have been adopted to draw the foul air from the room into a ventilating chimney heated by the iron smokestack extending thru its center from the basement to the top of the school building. The heat of the smokestack has the effect of warming the column of air between it and the walls of the chimney and causing an upward current, which draws the foul air out of the bottom of each room with more or less efficiency, but it will be found that this ventilating system does not work equally well in all rooms, and that this sometimes depends upon the direction of the wind or upon some defect in the construction of the flue. The ventilating fan, which forces the fresh air into the room, works well under all conditions.

One thing wanted is a series of simple directions by which a rural school of one room or a city school in which no ventilating flues have been provided, can be made to secure fresh

air without chilly currents. Sometimes a day's work of a carpenter with a few boards will succeed in providing a flue with an opening at the bottom of the room by which ventilation may be improved.

It is, of course, unreasonable to expect teachers to understand the principles of ventilation unless they know thoroly the theory of the dynamics of air and heat. They must be so familiar with this subject that they will conceive the air of the room, not as static, but as in a state of motion due to the constant movements of the pupils and to the changes of temperature caused by the heating apparatus. There is a constant access of carbonic acid due to the action of the lungs and bodies of the pupils. The teacher must realize that in a heated room the air tends to escape at the top and that cold air tends to come in at the bottom of the room to fill the vacuum. Carbonic acid, altho heavier than common air, rises to the top of the room when the air is in motion. Nevertheless, the ideal method of ventilating the room is to draw out or force out the air at the bottom of the room. But the teacher who understands the dynamics of heated air will know that the air does not leave the room at the bottom unless outside force is applied.

It is the opinion of the members of your Committee that the prize essays, if called for, should be required to present in a brief and clear manner the rationale of these things.

If it meets the approval of this Department the four topics already named can be formulated so as to draw the special attention of a number of experts to the essential points to be considered, and secure such a discussion of the questions involved as to be of service both to the teachers using antiquated school buildings and to the trustees and superintendents seeking the latest and best models.

It is proposed that this report be referred back to the Committee for further conference and for the formulation of the questions to be submitted for prize essays; further, that this report, thus amended and completed, be referred to the National Council of Education by this Department of Superintendence for such consideration and action as may seem ad-

visible in view of all the circumstances. To the Council belongs the business of looking into the expenditure of the moneys of the Association for such matters as special reports and prize essays. The following resolution² embodies these recommendations, and is herewith reported for your action:

Resolved, That the preliminary report of the Committee of Nine appointed at the Chattanooga meeting of the Department of Superintendence to make or cause to be made a scientific determination of the factors involved in the subjects of seating, lighting, ventilating, and heating of school buildings, be referred back to said Committee of Nine for further discussion and for such modifications as may seem to them proper; and that said amended report be brought to the attention of the President of the National Council of Education with the request from this body of superintendents that its recommendations be considered and such action be taken as in the opinion of the Council may further the best interests of Education.

Respectfully submitted,

WILLIAM T. HARRIS, *Chairman*

BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

² This resolution was then adopted by the Department of Superintendence

II

HYGIENIC DESKS FOR SCHOOL CHILDREN

The nineteenth century has witnessed a development of educational opportunities in America, of which we, as a people, may justly feel proud. The children of to-day therefore, enjoy intellectual advantages unknown to those who began life with the century. While we rejoice over this stupendous development certain facts confront us which suggest the question, are our methods of education such as to build up sufficiently strong bodies, to give permanent value to the intellectual strength acquired? If not, why?

In order to answer this question it will be necessary to obtain the results of a physical examination of the students who have spent twelve or fifteen years in the lower schools. Such examinations are being made by the directors of college and other gymnasia with results which are somewhat startling. They find, year after year, among the students who enter, and especially among the girls, a small number who possess strong, well-developed, and symmetrical bodies. A much larger number are unsymmetrical—having a slight lateral curvature or rotation of the spine, flat chest, and round shoulders. Many of them habitually stand with the body weight resting upon the heels, thus modifying the normal curves of the spinal column and otherwise changing the shape of the trunk. Bad habits of posture in sitting are also common to many, and defective vision is present in far too large a number. Has not the time come when the causes of such defects should be discovered and remedied? This paper deals with *one* of these causes, namely, *bad habits of posture acquired in school, during the most important developmental years of life*, and I hope to show that a radical change should be made in the form of the study-chairs and desks in use, not only in schools but in the homes of our growing boys and girls.

The shape which the body assumes in sitting, depends upon the position of the pelvis, the head, and the elbows; in standing it depends upon the position of the feet, the pelvis (in relation to the trunk), and the head. A chair which does not permit the pelvis to project behind the shoulder line, unbalances the whole body and makes sitting irksome. A pupil so seated slides the hips forward, and sits with shoulders braced against the back of the chair, thus arching the spine; or he drops the weight of the head and shoulders upon one elbow or both, thereby forcing back the shoulder blade and stretching the muscles which fasten it to the spine, producing the wing-like projecting scapula, so common among school children. At present nearly all the seats in use both in schools and in homes are constructed with backs so shaped that the shoulders, when resting against them, project *behind* the hip line. In my opinion it is this unbalancing of the body which makes children restless and inclined to assume unhygienic postures.

Teachers of physical training, especially the followers of Ling of Sweden, claim that the endurance of an individual depends upon the development of the chest, with its contents—the heart and lungs. No chest can attain great size or strength under habitual disuse. Most of the seats in use cause the body to balance in positions which result in the approximation of sternum and spine, thereby lessening the space for heart and lungs, causing the respiratory muscles to work at a disadvantage, and interfering with respiration. The distance between seat and desk is often so great, too, as to aid in the deforming process.

The desk or table which must serve for *both* reading and writing is also a menace to the body, inasmuch as the focal distance for reading, and writing script is not the same as that for reading print, the characters of which are smaller in size and are set more closely. The ordinary school desk is adjusted too high for writing, and too low for reading. To read comfortably from a book upon it, necessitates a forward inclination of the head: by gravity it soon sinks lower than is needful, and thus the pupil gets in the habit of using his eyes at too short a range. In time they refuse to be used at the

normal distance, and we recognize in them the condition called "near sight." This position tends to produce "flat chest" and "round shoulders" also.

The posture of body assumed in writing, too often places the spinal column in vertical rotation. In this position some of the intervertebral muscles and ligaments are held in strong tension, thus shutting out a normal supply of blood from the region, while others are held in such a state of relaxation as to permit an abnormal accumulation of blood within the vessels. The result of this may or may not be a permanent deformity. It always tends to weaken the tissues of the back. The adoption of "upright handwriting" obviates to some extent the necessity for the use of this posture, but a *revolving* seat removes the temptation to assume it. Too much space upon seat and desk gives license to the pupil to assume a variety of bad postures, from which he in time unconsciously chooses one which becomes habitual: under its baneful influence his body becomes molded into a more or less unnatural shape. The teacher, physician, or gymnasium director who has made a study of school postures, easily recognizes in the body shape of school children and college students, the postures which have become habitual. He also knows that symmetry of body can only be regained by the formation of new habits and careful corrective exercises under a skillful teacher. Prevention is more economical than correction. In the matter of bad school postures and their results, prevention consists in removing as far as possible the temptation to assume bad positions. This can only be done by providing children, both at home and in school, with seats and desks which, by the comfort they give, encourage the body to hold itself in hygienic positions.

In an article published in the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW of November, 1892, on the "Habitual postures of school children," I suggested a plan for combining in one desk the needful facilities for writing and reading. In doing this I hoped that some person interested in the subject, would design and manufacture the much-needed hygienic desk, as well as a better seat than any in use. Some improvements have

been made, but the need still exists; our school children go on growing unsymmetrical and defective in body, and the public demands nothing better for them.

With the assistance of a cabinet-maker I embodied late last summer the principles which I have herein set forth, and have caused to be manufactured¹ from my patterns the desk and chair which bear my name. A number of them are in use in the public schools of Ann Arbor, Mich., where we are

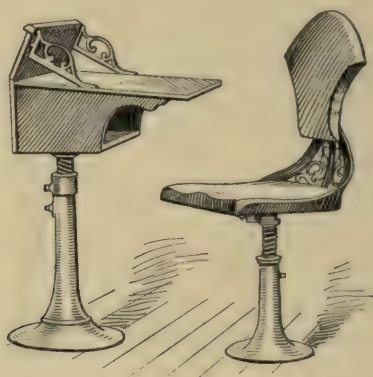


FIG. 1

watching their effect upon the postures of the children with critical attention. The report of teachers in whose rooms they are used is thus far favorable. After a few small changes are made in the original design, it seems probable that they will be productive of good to the children who use them.

No desk and chair will, however, remove the necessity for instruction and oversight on the part of the teacher, but it is hoped that this desk and chair will make such teaching effective and save many children from loss of body symmetry—from acquiring defective vision.

The following is a description of the chair and desk to which I have referred:

The “Mosher reading and writing desk,” consists of *two parts*, a writing table and an adjustable reading desk. It is narrow, to prevent the pupil from resting his elbows

¹ By Messrs. Beal & Daniels of Northville, Mich.

upon it wide apart. It is deep from front to back, to make room for books and papers, and it slopes but slightly. The reading attachment consists of a movable headpiece, attached to the writing desk by means of a pair of brackets having a swivel joint. When needed for reading, the pupil noiselessly drops it into position and places his book upon it. The normal focal distance for reading ordinary type is ten to fourteen inches; the book in place upon the reading desk is about this distance from the pupil when he is properly seated. It



FIG. 2

stands, moreover, at such an angle as to make a forward inclination of the head in reading not only unnecessary but uncomfortable. When the reading desk is not in use it forms, by virtue of its construction, a support for a copy or reference book. This feature of the desk is an important one, especially to the student doing mathematical work or using a dictionary.

Since children belonging to the same grade differ in height, it is necessary that both desk and chair shall be adjustable. This is accomplished by means of a single supporting standard of iron fastened to the floor. The pedestals of the chair and desk are practically the same in construction. To raise

or lower either, all that is needed is to loosen a single nut, place the chair or desk at the required height, and tighten the nut. The chair is semi-revolving, but can, if desired, be locked so as to cut off the revolving feature. The chair seat is saddle-shaped so that the pupil does not tend to slide forward into a position which curves the back, as do many school seats. The back of the chair consists of one piece only, so attached as to give space beneath it for the backward projecting hips. By means of this, every part of the pupil's back to which support can be applied rests against



FIG. 3

the chair while he uses either writing or reading desk. The back also can be raised or lowered to fit pupils of different heights.

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III

THE DEFECTIVE VISION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN ¹

Its Causes, and Possible Relief under Sanitary Conditions and Medical Supervision

It is not the purpose of this paper to undertake to prove statistically that the existence of defective vision and other physical defects in the school children of the United States is the result either of the unsanitary condition of school buildings or the various methods which have dominated our educational system from the time of its inception.

The agitation which, during the past decade, has resulted in the general consideration of the necessity for a change, not only in the construction and sanitation of our schoolhouses, but also in the existing educational system, is sufficient evidence that the sanitary and other improvements which have been and are still to be adopted as a result of this agitation, were necessitated in consequence of the ocular defect and physical injury which, it had been demonstrated, were, undoubtedly, to a considerable extent, the direct result of former unsanitary conditions and faulty systems.

The examinations of over a quarter of a million of the school children of this country, which have been made at various times and places by many painstaking ophthalmologists, have clearly demonstrated not only that defective vision exists, but also that the relative percentage of individuals suffering from ocular defects is now and has been constantly on the increase. This is especially noticeable in the more populous centers, where the demands for adequate accommodations have not been met, and in which adverse conditions have undoubtedly resulted in the overcrowding of school-rooms, the erection of school buildings upon inadequate, im-

¹ A paper read at the meeting of the New Jersey State Sanitary Association for 1899.

properly selected sites, and the building of many school-houses without a proper consideration of the most effective form of construction or provision for ventilation and sanitation.

Previous to the time when concerted action was taken upon the lines subsequently adopted by the observers of this country, in pursuit of a knowledge of the extent of the ocular defects of the school children of the United States, many investigations had been made in foreign countries, which not only indicated a higher percentage of visual defects in the children of the older countries than it has ever been demonstrated exists in this country, but also resulted in sanitary and other changes, which time and further observation have clearly demonstrated are of inestimable benefit to the present generation and are destined to be of still greater service to the generations to come.

Defective vision is the result of the ocular conditions affecting the refraction of the eye, and is undoubtedly caused by structural changes in the eyeball itself, which in the formative period during tissue-building is susceptible of alteration in its contour and accompanying errors of the refraction as a result of continued visual effort, overtaxing the muscles and tunics of the eye.

It has been frequently demonstrated that in infants the normal ocular condition is hypermetropia (or far-sightedness), which is almost invariably present. It has also been clearly shown that the (flattened or foreshortened) eyeball of the hypermetropic child frequently undergoes during school life and work a progressive lengthening of the optic axis, structural changes in the eyeball gradually taking place, the hypermetropic eye becoming rapidly emmetropic (or normal eye), and in many instances finally developing progressive myopia (near-sightedness) or some of the forms of simple or compound astigmatism (which is due to irregularity of the contour of the cornea in one or more of its meridians).

The development of structural changes in children progresses in logical sequence during the natural increase in the size of the eyeball, the distention occurring while it is in the

plastic stage of growth, when the ocular tissues are soft and yielding. Abnormal development is encouraged by the constant hyperæmia of the globe, which is the inevitable result of continued visual effort at the near point.

Under persistent efforts at near vision in growing children, the eye-strain developed results in a change in the shape of the eyeball, which is repeatedly temporarily distorted by the traction of its own fatigued and irritated muscles, until finally its contour becomes permanently abnormal. If the distention of the eyeball is regular and progressive and only results in a lengthening of the optic axis, myopia is the result; if the development is irregular, astigmatism is produced, the changes affecting the contour of the eyeball in one or more of its meridians.

The question, what can be done for the relief of ocular disease already in existence, and to prevent the development of ocular defects in future generations, are of paramount importance. An education of the public sentiment is the first step toward any reform measures; much has already been accomplished in this direction for the benefit of those who are now engaged in school work. State boards of education and others have interested themselves in the plans of construction of school buildings and have prepared, and in some instances furnish, working drawings of schoolhouses, of various capacity and cost, for the use of districts intending to erect new buildings. State boards of health have, under the advice of competent ophthalmologists, formulated plans of and issued circulars concerning the method of the examination of school children for defective eyesight. Municipalities have, in many instances, undertaken detailed examination of the pupils of their public schools.

Independent observers have made examinations and tabulated their results. Much has been written and widely circulated for the purpose of arousing a public interest in this important business.

Local boards of education, as a result of the dissemination of a knowledge of the requirements of a thoroly up-to-date schoolhouse construction, have in many instances

adopted plans for and erected school buildings upon healthful sites of suitable location and dimensions, with adequate light-supply to rooms of ample capacity, heated and ventilated in the most approved and scientific manner, in which the recognized sanitary appliances are so arranged as to prevent the possibility of the emanation of deleterious gases, and the school furniture and general decoration of the interior adapted to all of the conditions as they are at present understood. It is the hope and belief of interested scientists that in the near future schoolhouses will only be erected under restrictions which will compel a compliance with certain formulated rules for location, construction, and sanitation, to be adapted for the public good.

It is most essential to the well-being of the students of the present and of future generations that systematic ocular examination of all of the children of the public schools shall be universally adopted. The authorities of any State or municipality in which such examinations have not yet been instituted should at once, following in the footsteps of worthy predecessors, inaugurate a system of ocular examination in their schools. One of the most complete circulars of instruction for the examination of school children for defective vision yet issued is that of the New York State board of health, which may be obtained by addressing Baxter T. Smelzer, Secretary, at Albany, N. Y. In connection with these instructions test-cards are soon to be furnished to applicants by the New York State board of health; they may be also secured thru any optician. The test-card devised by Dr. Frank Allport of Minneapolis, with test-type and full instructions to teachers for the examination of their scholars' eyes, and also containing a series of questions relating to possible disease of the ear and throat, may be used as more convenient. It is published and sold by Almer Coe, of No. 65 State Street, Chicago.

Examinations should not only be made once in each school, but should be continued regularly each year at the beginning of the fall term, as the students advance from grade to grade. In case errors in the refraction of the eye are dis-

covered they should be properly corrected by glasses, and all necessary steps must be taken for a proper consideration of the relief and well-being of the school children in all departments. In this manner the minimum amount of danger of encouraging an increase in existing ocular defects may be assured to the scholar while performing the work at the near point which the requirements of the ordinary school curriculum impose upon the eye of the student of the present day.

The most acceptable method of procedure to all concerned in case an error in the refraction of the eye is present is to have the student immediately referred to his or her family physician, with the request that he shall refer to some competent ophthalmologist for examination. If the eyes are reddened or discharging, the scholar should be sent home with a letter of explanation and not permitted to again attend school until a medical certificate shall be presented indicating that the condition is of a harmless character and that there is no danger of the infection of any of the other pupils. In case the circumstances of the pupil will not permit the payment of a medical fee, he might be referred to one of the institutions at which he could be examined and treated free of charge. Blank forms of notification should be prepared for use in communicating the result of the examination and conveying the necessary instructions to the parents or guardians of the pupils who require examination or medical treatment.

The preliminary entrance examination, both ocular and physical, of all applicants for admission to the public schools, before beginning their school life-work, is of vital importance, altho it has not as yet been adopted in this country.

When these facts are taken into consideration, that about one-fifth of the entire population of the country are school children, destined for the period of about one-third of their natural lives to inhabit, for two-thirds of the working hours of the day, buildings used for school purposes, the desirability of a pupil's possessing good vision and a physical adaptability for the work is easily realized. If, upon examination, ocular defect or physical disability were discovered, the applicant might be denied admission until all that could be done for the

amelioration of the condition was accomplished. Children affected by contagious or infectious disease should not be admitted at all while a menace to other pupils.

Scientific advances will before long necessitate the assignment of scholars who have ocular or physical defects to a privileged class, where by a system of selective studies they may acquire a knowledge commensurate with their educational qualifications, and be given only the amount of school work which they have ocular and physical ability to perform. Pupils with defective vision, or those who are physically weak, should not be advanced to their own detriment and to the detriment of the physically strong, nor allowed to undertake the entire school curriculum as now laid down for all students alike, regardless of any consideration of their innate strength being sufficient to withstand the strain, or the possible result of a constant overtaxation of the physical and mental forces.

The plan of school work must be so arranged that an ordinary individual possessing average intelligence should be able, by the employment of due diligence, to perform the required amount of study without ocular or physical injury. Teaching should be didactic in character, with the aid of blackboards, maps, etc., to encourage frequent rest for the ocular muscles by the employment of the eye in distant vision. School study-periods should be arranged, and the amount of home work curtailed as much as a reasonable educational progress will permit. The fact that work at the near point at home, where the conditions are frequently quite as unsatisfactory as in any school, must not be lost sight of in arranging the course of study and allotting the time to be required for work outside of school hours. The question of the medical supervision of the schoolhouses, and of the scholars by a competent physician, regularly employed to devote constant attention to the physical condition of the pupils engaged in school work; to thoroly inspect the buildings in which such work is accomplished, regulating the lighting, heating, ventilation, sanitation, and general cleanliness of the building; to make the necessary physical examina-

tion of applicants for admission and others; to act, in fact, as the general health officer of the school and instructor in hygiene, not only for the scholars, but also for the teachers, has as yet been only partially favorably considered in a limited number of localities in this country.

The system of constant medical supervision was first experimentally adopted in Germany, at Wiesbaden. It was pronounced a success, and competent medical supervisors are now being generally employed in the schools of the larger communities.

Medical supervision in this country has been, until the present time, and is still confined, to more or less spasmodic efforts, consisting of examination of the school children thru local boards of education and municipalities (in almost all instances, for defective vision only)—in many cases this examination is made but once in a school, and is never repeated; the occasional inspection of schoolhouses for the purpose of investigation regarding their general sanitary condition; the examination of children of the schools by special observers for statistical purposes.

There is no schoolhouse in this country in which the medical inspectors appointed have complete control, except it may be during the period of construction. Schools have not as yet been placed under the complete hygienic control of medical supervisors or inspectors, nor have any steps been taken for the appointment of officers, possessing adequate powers and receiving sufficient compensation to enable them to devote their entire time and energy to regulation, supervision, and instruction, altho hygienic reports relating to the results attained under the direction of such inspectors indicate that complete medical supervision is no longer experimental, but is certain to be conducive of satisfactory and beneficial results.

In the near future general legislation must come which will make compulsory the adoption of the necessary conditions to provide for the scientific care and protection, in every essential particular, of all of the public-school children of the country, under laws to be enacted upon the same lines as

those which at present exist in the State of Massachusetts. The advance which the United States of America has made in a short period of time is unprecedented in the previous history of any national progress. It has been due, to a great extent, to the exceptional educational facilities, which have resulted in a general enlightenment of the masses of the people. The educational standard has been advanced to a plane necessitating so high a grade of general attainment that it entails for the ordinary scholar, except under favorable conditions, the expenditure of an amount of physical and mental energy greatly in excess of the average resources of the youth of the present age. It is of vital importance that attention shall be given to every detail in school-life work which can result in preventing the moral, mental, or physical degeneration of the children of the country. They, in the near future, must carry on the work which has already reached and is constantly attaining a higher state of perfection. Unless the present generation is to nurture a race of mental giants, who will be physically degenerate pygmies, steps must be taken at once to adopt every measure which is scientifically proven to be of advantage in preventing the onset of diseased conditions of any character in the children of our public schools.

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IV

A SUCCESSFUL EXPERIMENT IN PROMOTING PUPILS

For many years promotion from grade to grade in the public schools of New York city have been made semi-annually on or about February 1 and July 1. Pupils are recommended for promotion, or they are examined or tested as to proficiency, and in accordance with such examination or test, are advanced to the next higher grade or are "left back." In the latter event the child is obliged once more to cover the entire work of the previous term and cannot be advanced until the next semi-annual promotion.

The children who are not promoted are known as "hold-overs." A "hold-over" who has missed a promotion because of illness, change of school, absence of the teacher, or any other reason for which the child is not personally responsible, occasionally makes a creditable record during the second term in the grade; but usually the unpromoted remnant will include the dull child, the careless or inattentive child, the child who lacks the proper foundation, and the child whose development has been arrested by some physical defect or retarded by faulty teaching. That the hold-overs form the most undesirable material in the newly organized class is an inevitable result of this method of promotion. The incalculable injury suffered by the individual hold-over has long been recognized by the thoughtful observer, but a problem presenting so many difficulties, in aiming toward the good of the many, necessarily forces into the background the interests of the few. Consequently the system usually advances these hold-overs at the end of the second term in a grade, whether fit or unfit; but to the end of the chapter they remain unambitious and apathetic, and in schools where the ability of the pupil to answer a fire of questions is the gauge of the teacher's

success, they constitute the most unwelcome element in every class.

The grave objections to a common grading of all sorts and conditions of natural ability need not be entered into here. Superintendent Shearer, of Elizabeth, N. J. has made the important subject sufficiently clear. Close study of Mr. Shearer's plan led me to formulate the one now in operation in my school. I found the Elizabeth system impracticable for our large graded schools. Our teachers have not been trained to teach different grades or different parts of the same grade simultaneously; our children are so accustomed to giving close attention to the teacher that, when separated into groups, their minds invariably wander from their own tasks to listen to the instruction being given to some other group. Then, too, our classrooms are too small and too inadequately equipped for the proper division of the pupils into the groups this system advises.

But its general plan appealed strongly to my sense of justice. It extended an opportunity to the slow or backward child which it could readily embrace, and I determined so to modify it that it would meet the limitations of our schools.

Until July, 1898, my system of promotion had been as follows:

Children were classified as "positively fit" for promotion, "positively unfit" and "doubtful." The "positively fit" were advanced, the "positively unfit" held back, and the "doubtful" numbered in the order of merit and promoted in turn until the room next above was filled to its extreme limit. Faulty as this latter measure proved, it was forced upon us, because the inexorable pressure from without for admission to the school absolutely forbade a vacant seat anywhere. This system of promotion encouraged two great evils:

1. The same pupils, term after term, were found on the "doubtful" list. The necessity of filling vacancies above compelled their advance; their weaknesses accumulated, and by the time they had reached the sixth and seventh years they utterly failed to comprehend the work. In these instances it

was plainly evident that the demands of each successive grade and the stride of the brighter minds had forced the "doubtful" ones, so long tottering upon insecure foundations, far beyond their ability to follow:

2. Each class containing pupils of widely varying degrees of capability, ranging from very quick to very dull, the teacher was compelled to guide herself by the average mind, the "middle third." More or less disorder and apathy ensued among the children, for the brightest often grew careless and inattentive under tasks that were too simple for their capabilities, and the dullest lost interest because the work frequently reached out beyond their grasp.

Summing up, I may state that under this system, 70 to 75 per cent. of the pupils in the school were usually promoted; the number reached as high as 80 per cent., when the need for "filling up" became more than ordinarily pressing. As has been shown, two classes of pupils suffered more or less severely: namely, the bright child with insufficient tasks, and the dull one with tasks beyond its strength.

Toward the end of June, 1898, there were in my school 28 full-time classes and 4 half-day classes, the latter expedient having been adopted to satisfy the inordinate pressure for admission to the school. They were divided as follows; (the numeral indicating the year at school; the letter A the first half, B the second half of the year). Two classes each of 7 B, 7 A, 6 B, 5 A, 4 B, 4 A, 3 B, 3 A, 2 B, 2 A, and 1 B; three each of 6 A and 5 B and four of 1 A, two of these having been formed on June first. Promotions were made on June 30.

In accordance with the new plan I made no change in the grading of the seventh-year classes, but introduced the system from the sixth year downward. Where two or more rooms were occupied by classes of a similar grade they were classified as follows: Room 1, the brightest material; Room 2, medium material; Room 3, the poorest material. Where there were only two rooms, the better material went to Room 1, the poorer to Room 2. In most cases the better or more experienced teachers were placed in charge of the poorer material. The teacher of each first division

was instructed to forge ahead as rapidly as safety would permit, promotion having been promised to the children *just as soon* as the work assigned by law to the grade should have been satisfactorily completed. The teacher of each second or third division was told to proceed more slowly; to select simple tasks covering only the minimum requirements of the grade; to allow the children all the time they might need to grasp the different subjects; to encourage each pupil; but to pay special attention to the dullest minds.

The measure of the teacher's success was recorded by the development of each individual child. Here, too, promotion was assured at any time, and time limits for the completion of the grade extended when necessary.

For instance, where the period of four and a half months as laid down by law was not sufficient to cover the required ground, another four or six weeks were added with a special promotion guaranteed at the end of the time extension. Thus it will be seen that the hold-over who, by the old system, would have lost an entire term, loses much less time under the new, and advances at a gait fitted to his strength. There is perceptible gain in other directions. The primal cause of individual dullness being sought and found, means are taken to remove it and progress is no longer hampered. Carelessness and inattention are of necessity aggravated by the repetition of work that is neither new nor interesting, an inevitable result of the old way of "keeping back" for a second term, but they disappear under the individual instruction the new method permits. The weakness in fundamentals or the sheer incapacity that hitherto had been most baffling, is at once overcome by tasks adapted to existing ability or receptivity.

In Division 1, both teacher and children have grown more ambitious to get ahead in their work. The atmosphere of the room teems with eagerness, industry, and faithfulness. Indifference and disorder have completely vanished and a fine *esprit de corps* animates them all. One class, 4 B, had completed its grade work on December 1. Only five out of the sixty girls on its register were not ready to go on. These

were immediately transferred to Division 2, which class being of the same grade, no disgrace was entailed upon the transferees, who were advanced with the rest of that class at the regular promotion on January 30. Another class, 5 A, entered upon a new grade as early as January 3, with every member fully up to the mark.

In Division 2 the teachers have grown more sympathetic and find less fault with slow pupils, and these, no longer held at high pressure in order to keep up with unusually gifted classmates, are daily growing more self-confident. Ambition has been awakened in many of them, and for the first time in their lives they see themselves enabled to climb toward the top. They find it less hopeless and discouraging to strive for rank among their equals than in a class where a few bright minds will always hold the lead, often, too, without apparent effort. The work prepared to fit the scope of the slower intellects is comprehended by every member of the class, consequently the interest is sustained and inattention or indifference is rarely met. Heretofore a transfer for inability sent the child to a lower grade and meant the loss of half a year; to-day, the classes being only different parts of one grade, the loss is rarely more than two months.

A class in the third division had not completed its grade at the end of the term, January 30; it was permitted to continue its work under the same teacher and was promoted on March 12, a distinct gain of three and one-half months, for under the old system every pupil in that class would have "held over" for the whole of the ensuing term. Equally, the 4 B class in the first division, which entered 5 A on December 1 and was again advanced to 5 B on April 11, made an absolute gain of ten weeks in seven school months. It is worthy of note that the teachers in the second and third divisions have grown so deeply interested in their work and so warmly attached to their children that, at the last general promotion, most of them pleaded for permission to retain the same pupils and carry them on thru the next grade.

I have, however, found two serious objections to the new system, but in my opinion they are more than offset by the

tremendous gain in every other direction, and by the undeniable evidence that the general character of the teaching thruout the school has reached a higher plane.

The disadvantages to be combated or to be left to the wise adjustment of time, are:

1. The disturbance to the homogeneity of a class caused by adding to its number members not quite "up to the grade." This is unavoidable in a school where the demand for admission makes it necessary immediately to fill every vacated seat;

2. The proper place for individuals not ready for promotion has not yet been found, as may be illustrated thus: A pupil in 5 B is "left back." There are three classes in this grade: 5 B 1, composed of the brightest minds, will advance most rapidly; 5 B 2, with children of average ability, will require the full term to complete its work; 5B 3 may need seven or eight months to cover the course, its progress being hampered by its slow pupils. Where shall we place the hold-over?

Apparently in the first division, for he has already covered the entire ground. Yet here he is brought into competition with the brightest pupils and in spite of his previous work will quickly fall behind. Being slow, he would seem to belong in the third division, yet it seems hardly just to put him in the lowest and slowest section after he has already spent a whole term in the grade. A second division might answer wherever there is a third one below it; otherwise the decision must be a matter for experiment, influenced by individual needs and circumstances.

The third, fourth, fifth, and sixth year hold-over is the cause of most serious worry in this plan. I believe (a belief which cannot be substantiated by proof until the expiration of several terms) that had these children been classified from the very beginning according to the present plan, they would, long ere this, have been able to do individual thinking. It was the faulty process to which they had always been subjected that produced present conditions: that process being

removed, the dull child of the future will be a far less discouraging factor in the product of a teacher's work.

Six months' trial of this system in my school resulted in an increase in the promotion list on February 1, 1899, to 88 per cent. This calculation includes 37 pupils who lost a part of the term, and excludes 83 pupils in an introductory 1 A class. These 83 were admitted after the beginning of the term and had attended school only in the afternoons. This means only two hours of daily instruction and represents a makeshift adopted to eke out insufficient school accommodation. The heaviest hold-over percentage occurred in the third-year classes, where, for two consecutive terms, serious illness among the teachers and frequent changes in the substitutes had caused loss of standing to the children.

I am firmly convinced that under this system fully 90 per cent. of the pupils in any well-graded school may be constantly advanced without forcing and without loss of time. Furthermore, that the brighter pupils will legitimately gain a full year, and brilliant ones a year and a half, during a seven-years' course. It is difficult to compute the time gained by the slow child, nor is it a matter of moment. Greater far for such a one is the gain in confidence in his own powers, the knowledge that he can henceforth hold his own among his fellows, and find a foot-hold on the ladder which heretofore had been utterly inaccessible; for, under the spur of dawning ambition, there come to him a firm determination to make progress and an inner resolve to bend every effort in the attempt to master each difficulty that rises in his path. I see my bright children no longer handicapped in their onward march, nor ruthlessly pressed into the hampering mold cast to fit the average child; I see my slow ones eagerly reaching out to grasp the patient, helping hand. I see them all believing in themselves, and at last growing thru self-help and self-development.

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V

READING BY SAMPLE

Human nature is so constituted that the idea of getting something for less than its actual value is irresistibly and almost universally attractive. Apart from any pleasure or profit that may chance to accrue from the possession of any article so obtained, there is the comfortable feeling that we have obtained it thru our superior cleverness and discernment, and that it stands as a tangible evidence and perpetual reminder of our practical shrewdness and business capacity. This is one great element in the fascination exerted by bargain counters and auctions; a fascination felt by many who are perfectly able to pay the market price. This is the origin of that large class of exceptionally sharp buyers represented by Mrs. Toodles, who secure miscellaneous and useless articles at phenomenal prices because they are so handy to have in the house. Probably this state of affairs need not sit too heavily on our souls; doubtless in many cases where the buyer thinks he has gotten the better of the seller, the seller knows that he has outwitted the buyer, and both being satisfied the result is the greatest happiness of the greatest number.

When, however, an ordinarily clear-sighted people like the Americans attempt to carry the same rules of conduct into a sphere that is purely intellectual, when they attempt to buy things spiritual in the cheapest market, they inevitably get the worst of their bargain. The world of business is the complex product of social conditions and human energy, and its laws are to no inconsiderable extent of man's own making; but this world of business is one thing, and the world of the intellect is another. Our intellectual gains and losses are subject to laws which man has not made and cannot change. A primary law governing intellectual acquisition is that the individual must pay an equivalent for what he gets. Here at

least is a region where the aggregated wealth and cleverness of a whole nation of shopkeepers are light as thistledown in the scales; a region where there are no bargain counters, no auctions, and no cheating, and where no man can truly pay the debt or save the soul of another. Here, in this world of the intellect, a man gets nothing for nothing, and the more real effort he expends, the more he may reasonably hope to receive.

I need hardly say that I am not speaking now of that pinchbeck culture with which we are all but too familiar. I know very well that a cheap imitation of learning can be had at a price which, if cheap in a lower sense, is in a higher most disastrously dear. I am speaking of intellectual gains, not of what may be made to pass for such, and I say that to attempt to buy below cost price in this market is to commit an act of folly.

It ought to be quite superfluous to say this: unfortunately it appears to be very needful to say it at the present time as plainly and as strongly as possible. Self-evident as this primary law of a true intellectual growth is, or ought to be, a large, and it is to be feared, a constantly increasing number of readers are practically disregarding it, and—what is still more surprising—a very considerable company of eminent scholars and writers seem bent upon promoting a delusion already but too prevalent. Imperfectly educated readers, while they apparently recognize the value of a knowledge of great literatures, are being led to imagine they can get that knowledge without paying for it; that is, without expending a tithe of that honest effort by which alone it can be gained. There may be legitimate ground for difference of opinion as to the way in which a literary work should be studied, or as to the extent to which the various collateral aids should be employed, but whatever else we may do or leave undone, one thing should be beyond question: the man or woman who would really enter into any supreme literary creation must first read it thru; he must read it for himself, not vicariously thru critics or in synopses; he must read it not once but many times, with the best strength of his intellect and with the

sympathetic guiding of his spirit. This honest putting forth of one's powers in the struggle to master a great book is the price exacted of everyone who desires really to possess it; the man who will not, or cannot, give the time, or trouble, or strength to that struggle cannot—by any patent device or backstairs methods—get the benefit. Great books may indeed be as angelic messengers to us, but they are like that angel at the brook Penuel; to win their blessing we must wrestle with them alone, refusing to let them go. This notion seems to be in danger of becoming obsolete; and the oldtime reader, trained to patient research, and capable of the prolonged concentration required for the mastery of a substantial masterpiece, is growing more and more rare. There is an increasing belief that our time is becoming too valuable for us to devote much of it to the masterpieces of literature. Why, it is urged, should we waste leisure which might be better employed, in reading the *Iliad*, the *Divine comedy*, or *Hamlet*, when a few sample pages from each of these somewhat lengthy and difficult works, together with an abstract of the plot and a critical essay, will give us all that we need for conversation or for culture. It is assumed on every hand that persons unable or unwilling to read for themselves can avail themselves of the services of experts who will read for them and manage to transfer the benefits of their studies, without any undue exertion on the part of the recipients. It is held, in fine, that it is possible to enter into the fellowship of the immortals without paying the time-honored fee for admission.

The delusion that a fictitious acquaintance with a hundred books thru "elegant extracts" and desiccated biographies, is better than a true understanding of one, is so old that it should have been long since effectually dispelled. Hamlet's soliloquy, Portia's plea for mercy, "My name is Norval," and other vagrant passages, have been wandering so long thru readers, speakers, and volumes of "choice verse," that thus thrust out of their surroundings, they have become the tramps of literature. The extraordinary fact is that with all our boasted advance in literary study, with all the clamor

that there has been about the necessity of bringing students and readers "directly in contact with the literature itself," this delusion that reading can be done by sample is not merely undisputed, but more and more abounding. To-day our best writers are preparing, our most prominent publishers printing, and—in many cases—our biggest department-stores selling, so-called *Libraries* which claim to contain samples of the best works of the best writers of all ages and countries, so presented as to give the fortunate reader a knowledge of the sum of the world's best literature.

Prominent among these *Libraries* is that known as *The Library of the world's best literature*, called by one journal "the greatest purely literary enterprise of the century." It is edited by Mr. Charles Dudley Warner, one of the ablest and most widely-known of our living writers; the first associate editor is Mr. Hamilton Wright Mabie; it has enlisted in its service many of the ablest scholars and critics of two continents. According to the Prospectus: "It affords a general view of literature from remote antiquity to the present time, and contains the best and brightest reading from the brightest and best writers, speakers, and thinkers of all ages, nations, and periods. It treats every important literary subject which the minds of men have considered for the past thirty centuries, and presents the best and most representative specimens of every class of literary quality as expressed in poetry, prose, history, biography, oratory, essay, romance, science, philosophy, theology, etc.; embodying (as one might reasonably infer) every sentiment, grave and gay." I cannot recall anything more liberal or comprehensive than this, unless it be the advertisement of Mr. Wackford Squeers' Academy. The work, we are further told, is "not only a library of reference, but a library to be read." One admirer, after rehearsing the breadth of its range, and declaring that "the prophet, the moralist, the historian, the poet, the dramatist, the novelist, and the wit" have contributed their best to these volumes, adds ingenuously—"and what is most surprising about it all is, that these pages are thoroly readable." Moreover, "the *Library* contains synopses of all im-

portant works of fiction, dramas, epic poems, and abstracts of the contents of all the principal books of the world, giving the reader a general and valuable statement for the purpose of information, or of intelligent [?] conversation on books, without having read every work of each author." By means of these abstracts, critical essays, and sample passages, we are assured that novels "are presented in a more accessible form to the great majority of readers than would be the complete productions themselves," so that, "a complete novel can be mastered and enjoyed in an hour, or in a single evening, which otherwise would take much time to wade thru." That royal road to learning, the very possibility of which old-fashioned skeptics deny, is thus gloriously thrown open and dedicated to the public use. As I read the glowing paragraphs of the prospectus, in which we are told that "the *Library* starts a new epoch in the intellectual life of the American people," I seem to see the members of a remote, humble, but aspiring household, assembled after their day of toil. I try to enter into the mind of each, as the father of the family (sustained, it may be supposed, by a sense of the benefits he is dispensing) reads handy sample passages from the literature of thirty centuries, passing with a fine impartiality from Babylonian Literature to the *Bab ballads*, from *The Divine Comedy* (in selections) to *Betsey and I are out* (which is given entire), and finally refreshing his bedraggled followers, after a casual plunge into *Kant's Critique of pure reason*, by a vivacious selection from Mark Twain, or Artemus Ward. Here is indeed the beginning of a new epoch, in which all men shall take all literature to be their province.

I have no wish to treat a grave matter lightly; nor do I believe that the scene I have ventured to picture is exaggerated or impossible. I am led to this belief by the fact that, while the Warner *Library* is advertised and sold as a library for the general reader, it is arranged as a reference book; subjects and authors being given in strict alphabetical order, without regard to any natural grouping or affiliations. The ordinary reader is thus deprived of the only thread which could really guide him thru the labyrinth;

he is in a maze thru which few but trained students could successfully find their way, and passes helplessly from the *Kabbala* to the *Kalavala*, and from Thomas à Kempis to Grace King and Kipling, reading everything by turns and nothing long. I believe it was Goethe who said "Great books are not to be judged by brilliant passages." I wish that this sound maxim could be placed on the title-page of every one of the thirty octavo volumes of the Warner Library.

To avoid any possible misapprehension, let me say that it lies entirely outside of my present purpose to criticise Mr. Warner's *Library* as a whole. A large part of its critical and biographical matters I have not even examined, but, knowing well the high standing of its contributors, I am not so presumptuous as to question its excellence. With its value as a work of reference, or with any other admirable features that it may possess, I am not now concerned. My strictures are confined solely to the false theory upon which the work is prepared; the theory that in the study of literature we can enjoy the cake without paying our penny; the theory that a part is equal to the whole. The world's great triumphs of literary art are as noble buildings, great in the broad architectural beauty of a symmetrical design; we can no more know them thru the mutilated *dissecta membra* of selections, than we can judge of the majesty of the Coliseum by a sample brick. When, under the guidance of Mr. Warner and his associates, we have read six pages of selected passages from *Hamlet*, and supplemented our studies by reading the analysis of the plot, and the examination of the sources of the drama, which cover just half a page more; what have we done? We may have gained an idea that we know something of a matter about which we are wholly ignorant—a most prevalent and pestilent delusion; we may have qualified ourselves, in our own conceit, to join in a "literary" discussion; we may have convinced ourselves that any obligation on our part to study a world-masterpiece has thereby been satisfactorily discharged; we may have acquired or confirmed in ourselves a vicious and mentally debilitating habit of

desultory reading; we may have done all this and worse; but we have not read *Hamlet*. A knowledge of Shakespeare, of Homer, or of Dante is not to be thus bought cheap at any bargain counter; we cannot so cheat the immortals, we only cheat ourselves.

I have spoken of Mr. Warner's *Library* at comparative length simply because it is an excellent representation of enterprises of this character. The same remarks are equally applicable to other recent ventures on the same general plan and of almost, or quite, the same magnitude. We are told, for instance, that in the *International library of famous literature* "the whole literature of the whole world, gathered from the ends of the earth," is "represented." It is true that after this the announcement adds, with a most becoming and modest candor: "No one library contains it all, not even the library of the British Museum."¹ Donald G. Mitchell writes for this *Library*, Andrew Lang, and many more. Then there is the *Library of choice literature*, upon which more than half a million dollars is said to have been expended, edited by Mr. Ainsworth R. Spofford, the late librarian, and present assistant librarian, of the Congressional Library. Or, if we turn from literature to another field, we can find in *Sixty centuries of history* the "history of the entire world from the beginning to—Dewey, the hero of Manila." We are told that, "by dipping into the *Library* for an hour or two every now and then, one may acquire a firmer and wider grasp upon the history of the world and the men who have made it, than could be obtained by grubbing about for a lifetime among the histories of single countries." The power to read has been becoming more and more enfeebled by modern haste and modern superficiality; it has been undermined by the insidious influence of newspapers, periodicals, short stories, and cheap fiction; if, besides all this, the strong meat of literature and learning is to be resolved into fluid extracts and watery broths, it is to be feared that a race fed on such sickroom diet will lose all power of masticating and digesting solid food.

¹ It may not be irrelevant to add that "a whole edition of this *Library* has been secured by Mr. John Wanamaker," and that the passage above quoted is taken from an advertisement which appears over his name.

Nor is this pernicious delusion of reading by sample confined to works of the character of those just mentioned. A recent example of its growth has just come under my notice, which, tho much more restricted in aim and therefore much less objectionable in character, is based upon the same unfortunate misconception; I mean Carpenter's *American prose*. This book is not a subscription book; it is not imposed upon a credulous public by the enterprise of department stores; glorified by advertisers, or extolled by undismissable book-agents; it bears the imprint of a leading publishing house and reaches us thru the ordinary channels. I feel constrained to speak of it because there is nothing in all this to put the wariest upon his guard, because its defects are less obvious, and because the eminence of its editor and his associates seems almost to preclude an adverse judgment. So strong is the presumption raised in the book's favor by a mere recital of its contributors that I feel compelled in all fairness to mention at least some of their names. The general editor is Professor George R. Carpenter. Professor Charles Eliot Norton contributes the estimate of Lowell, William D. Howells that of Curtis, Thomas Wentworth Higginson that of Thoreau, and John Fiske that of Parkman. Not only are our leading men of letters numbered among its contributors; the list also includes eminent scholars, men identified with some of our largest universities, who stand not only for literature but for the work of the teacher. Thus Harvard is represented by Barrett Wendell, George Santayana, and Lewis Edward Gates—besides Professor Norton, whose name has been already mentioned; Columbia by the general editor, Brander Matthews, Munroe Smith, and Harry Thurston Peck. It is not necessary to complete the list; it is enough to say that some four or five colleges are thus ably represented, and to add that in many cases the writers are specialists in English.

Yet this book also stands for the practice of reading by sample. We learn from the Preface that "the volume follows in general the plan adopted in Mr. Craik's *English prose* and Mr. Ward's *English poets*," and that "its object is

to present extracts of considerable length from the works of each of the chief American prose-writers, preceded by a critical essay and a brief biographical sketch." Twenty-five authors are "represented" in the body of the book by eighty-seven selections. The average length of each selection, which the editor regards as considerable, is consequently between three and four pages. The book begins with Cotton Mather and ends with Parkman, living authors being excluded. There is an appendix of fifteen pages, in which eight authors, earlier than Mather, are "represented" by nine extracts; none of these extracts are long, and some of them do not fill a page. Not more than nine out of the eighty-seven selections are complete; in some cases the incompleteness of the text is not made apparent (except by a comparison with the work as the author intended it to be read), but in most instances its fragmentary and unfinished character is self-evident to the most casual reader. Putting the critical portions of the book aside, let us ask frankly whether any good that may come from such a collection is not likely to be enormously outweighed by its evil effects?

I am not foolish enough to contend that if we read a book at all we should read it thru; nor have I forgotten Bacon's oft-quoted maxim that "some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested," but there is a wide difference between tasting a book for one's self,—handling it, dipping into it here and there and absorbing its spirit from actual contact,—and being content to be a dependent upon the palate of another. Let us remember further that the selections in Professor Carpenter's volume are taken from our most representative books, books that, in many cases, everyone with any pretense to culture reads thru; books that are intended to stand for the greatest glories of our prose literature; and remembering this let us take to heart Bacon's further counsel: "Some books also may be read by deputy, and extracts made of them by others; but that would be only in the less important arguments, and the meaner sort of books; else distilled books are, like common distilled waters, flashy things." I believe that a detailed

examination of Professor Carpenter's book would conclusively establish the wisdom of Bacon's dictum, at least in a very large majority of the selections. This examination every reader may, if he choose, make for himself; all that I have space to do here is to give a few random examples. For instance, let anyone who has already formed some notion of Cotton Mather ask himself how adequately the man is represented, in his weakness as well as in his strength, by the nine pages of extracts. Nine pages may seem to some a rather scanty inclosure for the immortal remains of an author who is said to have published 382 works, but to be honest we can bear the loss of a considerable part of Mather's writings with fortitude. I would rather ask the reader to notice that from none of the selections do we gain any hint of that important side of Mather's character which is unveiled in his *Wonders of the invisible world*. All nine selections are from the *Magnalia*, and Mather, the enemy of witchcraft, who beheld the demons haunting the New England streets, is decorously kept out of view. A conception is thus formed in the reader's mind, if he takes this book as a guide, which, if correct as far as it goes, presents by its incompleteness a distorted image of the truth. If such selections are misleading, other passages are made uninteresting and almost unintelligible, by being forcibly abducted from the home of their birth. This is peculiarly the case where a few pages are ripped out of the middle of a narrative and thrust in without a line of explanation. The reader who expects the half-dozen pages devoted to "Eliza's escape" to exempt him from reading *Uncle Tom's cabin*, or who, unwilling or unable to master *The last of the Mohicans* for himself, relies on a truncated scene from that story entitled "Hawk Eye and his friends," shows an optimistic feebleness which the facts do not warrant. Finally, the reader who "studies" Hawthorne without having paid one of that author's great romances, from *The scarlet letter* to *The marble faun*, the compliment of reading it thru, is entirely mistaken or misguided. Yet in Professor Carpenter's book the only representation of the longer romances of Hawthorne is an extract of about eight pages

from *The scarlet letter*. To one unfamiliar with *The scarlet letter*, this extract (the great scene of Dimmesdale's confession) is almost unintelligible; to one who has read the book, it is useless, if not annoying. This scene, one of the most powerful in fiction, is the climax toward which the author, with infinite pains and consummate skill, has been leading us from the beginning, and its noble impressiveness is inevitably and rightly made dependent upon all that has gone before. To rend this scene out of a romance marvelous in its symmetrical beauty of design is to insult alike the genius of Hawthorne and the intelligence of his readers; it is to desecrate a work of art. By such a procedure not only is the cumulative force of *The scarlet letter* destroyed at a blow, but the scene itself is emptied of much of its awful meaning and passion.

I do not say that all books of prose selections are to be condemned without a hearing; I can see a certain restricted usefulness, for instance, in the book of Professor Craik which is Professor Carpenter's avowed model; but I do contend that American prose as a whole is lacking in those elements which alone give a collection of English prose extracts its value, almost its very excuse for being. I contend that, while a series of detached prose passages may have a positive if limited use, if they illustrate for students the growth of a language, the characteristic excellences or historic changes in prose style, yet that such a book must be prepared for students of style and language, not addressed to the general reader or even to students of literature or literary history. It is obvious that any book of selections from American prose must inevitably fail to satisfy the full requirements of the student of style or language. American prose lacks the antiquity, the beauty, and the instructive variety which the prose literature of England possesses. Moreover, all the books that we have considered are either apparently or avowedly intended for the general reader, and it is for his sake that our leaders of culture thus ruthlessly maim the world's great books on a bed of Procrustes. This is made the more unaccountable by the fact that the practice has been discredited and very largely abandoned in our schools and col-

leges. I do not know of a single competent teacher of English who would advise his classes to study the great English or American classics in extracts, or, as Bacon would say, "by proxy." It is hard to understand why educators, who have gained a victory over this evil in one sphere, should themselves take pains to raise it up in another; why, when it is so hard to teach the average person to read on a right method, the leaders should provide facilities for his reading on a wrong one. The movement toward a more thoro, genuine, and widespread acquaintance with the works of our great writers, if begun largely by teachers, was extending beyond strictly scholastic limits. As a result of better standards we have had innumerable popular and school editions of the English, and many of the American classics, complete, and in a cheap and convenient form. To go back to the antiquated method of extracts is, to my thinking, to sound a retreat in the hour of victory.

How fatally easy it is to talk glibly about being acquainted with the world-literatures of thirty centuries; how unspeakably hard it is for a man to arrive at so much as a passable knowledge of one or two great books, even after years of loving toil! How superficial our reading is apt to be at best, and how much we most of us lose by the modern temptations to rapid transit! When I reflect on these things, I am reminded of an acquaintance of mine who left the activities of business to see Europe in three months. Making, as he imagined, the best possible use of time and money, he succeeded in traversing an immensely large area in an exceedingly short space of time. Picture galleries, mountains, museums, rivers, cities, theaters, cathedrals, ruins, all were visited and viewed with the most gratifying promptitude and dispatch. But, for all his exertions, on the very day on which he was obliged to sail, something remained undone. "I was determined," he said, "that I would not come home without seeing Oxford. So I took a train earlier for Liverpool so that I could stop off at Oxford. Before it stopped there I was on the platform, called a cabman, told him I had just two hours to see Oxford, and promised him half a guinea

extra if he'd drive sharp. "It was quick work, but"—he added, with a monumental self-complacency—"but, then, I *saw Oxford*." We may congratulate American business energy and enterprise, alert in the "home of lost causes," and speeding in triumph past the gray towers of Magdalen, or the halls that Balliol or Wolsey founded, but what shall we say when we are bidden by a convocation of critics and scholars to enjoy after this fashion the accumulated glories of the literatures of the world!

HENRY S. PANCOAST

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

VI

EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION FOR NEW YORK STATE

D. E. Ainsworth Deputy State Superintendent, Albany, N. Y.

That unification is desirable is admitted by everyone. We need two departments of public education as much as we need two bank departments, two insurance departments, two governors, two railroad tickets for a single journey, or as much as the proverbial dog needs two tails. But what is unification? Some seem to think that unification is putting under charge of a single department all the educational work done by the State, by the locality, by the church, by the private corporation, by the home and by the individual. This is not unification. This is confusion and clashing of interests and is the application to educational matters of a paternalism which would not be tolerated by its advocates in any other branch of government.

The State must do certain educational work for its own protection. This is compulsory. This involves the taxing power, the police power, the licensing power, and the executive power of the State. Whatever aid or assistance the State may see fit to give in support of that education which is furnished by private enterprise and for which it is not responsible involves the exercise of none of these powers, but is advisory, gratuitous, and, however wise and useful,—which I am not now discussing,—is entirely separate and distinct from that work which the State must do.

Unification, therefore, is the placing under the head of a single department all that branch of educational work which is compulsory upon the State, and which it must do for its protection. To divide this work at any artificial point, leaving two departments of the State government to exercise all of its powers above enumerated, is to create clashing at every

point, is a waste of energy and a prodigal waste of public funds, and an injury to the cause of education. The true policy is to place under a single department the work which the State *must* do, leaving to the Regents that which it *may* do.

How can unification be best attained? The Regents, by refusing to transfer to any other department the few schools which they, for forty-six years only, have had under their partial supervision, insist that they can do this work better than the State superintendent of public instruction or the proposed commissioner of education. They allege two reasons why this is so: first,—because of their “ancient and historic traditions,” and second,—because they are a non-political body. Let us examine these claims, in their order.

It is true they were created in 1784. For what purpose? Examine the early legislation. They were created expressly to look after private and individual effort in educational matters. They never touched the public-school system until 1853, while the department of public instruction was created in 1812 and has been in existence, charged with that work, ever since, altho under different names. “Ancient and historic traditions” furnish no argument whatever, but if they did its weight is against the Regents.

Second: Their oft-repeated statement that they are a non-political body, and their implied charge on every occasion that the department of public instruction is political, is an unjust criticism. Bear in mind that the Regents are elected by the same body and in the same manner as the superintendent of public instruction, with the curious distinction, however, that when the legislature, on joint ballot, elect a Regent they always select a saint, and when electing a superintendent of public instruction they invariably select a sinner. I have participated in the election of several Regents of the University, and I never knew one elected because of any known or suspected fitness for public-school work. None has ever been elected because of any experience, fitness, training, or sympathy with that work, however he may have developed afterward.

Senator Depew was elected because he was a genial, accomplished, and ardent Republican—for no other reason whatever. Father Malone was elected because he was a cultured Christian priest, and it was thought wise that the particular church of which he was a member should have a representative upon the board of Regents. Regent Watson was elected because Senator Conkling—in the palmy days of that great statesman—simply directed the legislature to elect him; and it did. For many years they refused to elect any but a doctor, and so the whole list does not present a single man conversant with the problems of public education, who was elected because of his familiarity or sympathy therewith. The only difference between the election by the legislature of a superintendent of public instruction and a Regent has been this; that the legislature, with almost unerring discretion, has elected a superintendent of public instruction because of some known or supposed fitness, by experience or training, for the performance of the duties of that office, while a Regent has never yet been elected for this reason. It must further be said, to the credit of the department of public instruction, that Republican, Democrat, or Prohibitionist alike has never found difficulty in securing a position therein, under any administration, when special fitness was present. An analysis of the force in that department, under the present or under past administrations, fully justifies this statement.

It is a little amusing to hear the Regents protest against transferring the 523 high schools, now partly in charge of Mr. Parsons of that department, to the department of public instruction on the ground of political influence in the department, when Mr. Parsons, a Democrat, was appointed to a position in the department of public instruction by a Republican superintendent, from which department he was rescued "like a brand from the burning" and translated to the Regents' office; and yet the charge is seriously made that if he and these 523 high schools were restored to this department ruin would result, because of politics! It may be that Senator Depew, Governor Roosevelt, Lieutenant Governor Woodruff, Secretary of State McDonough, St. Clair McKel-

way, Whitelaw Reid, Carroll E. Smith, Martin I. Townsend, ex-Senator Hamilton Harris, Judge Turner, and Charles E. Fitch have no politics. Perhaps it is by the divine law of predestination or foreordination, and not by politics that these Regents have managed to secure about all the good offices that the Republican party has had to give, during the last twenty-five years, or, perhaps the claim is made on the part of the Regents that these men in the aggregate possess virtues which none of them assume individually. They are all cultured and delightful gentlemen, and ardent Republicans, busy men of affairs, devoting but slight attention to the details of school work. Ten Regents attended the meeting protesting against the passage of the White bill; five of these ten reside in the city of Albany, and yet the body was so impressed with the large number in attendance that they emphasized that fact, in the literature that they spread broadcast in opposition to the bill. The statement was true; ten out of twenty-three is an unusually large attendance.

If the efficiency of these men is increased by the fact of their life tenure of office, it is against the common experience of men in other affairs of life. Ordinarily a man of eighty years of age is not as useful as when in his prime, but if that fact does add to their efficiency in contrast with the superintendent of public instruction, the logical answer is "increase the term of the superintendent of public instruction," and it seems to me you will give that officer the same advantage as claimed by the board of Regents.

I care not how the superintendent or commissioner is selected; I care not what he is called; but let the legislature elect, the Governor appoint (or, if some patent method can be devised better than that provided by the Constitution for the selection of public officers, let it be adopted), but create an office filled by an *individual* without divided responsibility; charge him with the duty of taking care of all the educational work for which the State is responsible, and place the entire public-school system in his charge. Let the Regents, in accordance with their ancient and historic traditions, supervise and control all other branches of educational work, includ-

ing the making of doctors, lawyers, chiropodists, veterinary surgeons, and bookkeepers, and let them disburse such voluntary aid as the State sees fit to give for private educational work, and supervise private schools, if thought desirable. The kindergarten, the primary, the grammar school and the high school are then correlated together, forming a single system, each step therein related to the next, and you give to New York State, by the proposed White educational bill, the best educational statute of any State in the Union. You then have the most economical, efficient, and practical administration.

This fight has been won, and unification along these lines will come.

C. W. Bardeen Editor of the School Bulletin, Syracuse, N. Y.

In my judgment, 1. There should be a consolidation of the two departments at Albany.

2. The board of Regents should occupy the same relation to the State that the board of education does to a city, so far as regards the powers now in the hands of the two departments, and on the lines suggested by the report of the Chicago commission. This may make desirable a change in the constitution of the board of Regents, but their name and their present functions should continue.

3. This board should elect the superintendent of public instruction, for a term of not less than six years, and with a salary of at least \$7000. His present executive authority should not, however, be abridged. The power of the Regents, so far as the department of public instruction is concerned, should be limited to the selection of the superintendent, who should have the appointment of all his subordinates.

4. The high schools should not be removed from the supervision of the Regents. There is not in the history of education in this country another instance of an influence so strongly uplifting. A multitude of small village schools that had been carelessly managed and indifferently supported have been led, thru the ambition of being ranked among Regents' schools, to provide a library and apparatus, better

buildings, and better teachers; and have substituted for divergent and often whimsically constructed courses of study the syllabus of study laid out by the Regents in accordance with the best educational thought of the time. Moreover, many of the present high schools were formerly endowed academies, which gave up their corporate privileges only in the assurance that as public schools they would retain their relation to the Regents.

5 Any legislation tending to remove Cornell University from the supervision of the Regents, and to give it any extraordinary privileges, I should consider in every way mischievous.

Principal F. D. Boynton High School, Ithaca, N. Y.

The year 1900 should not be allowed to pass without the enactment of a law which will remove the great educational interests of the Empire State beyond the realm of partisan politics. Any measure which provides for the election of a commissioner of education by a strictly partisan body presupposes that said commissioner is of the same political faith, to be changed every time the politics of the electing body changes. Any political manager who would permit the election of an unfriendly political rival to an office that has the distribution of four million dollars annually, with an agent in every assembly district under the title of school commissioner, would be anything but a shrewd political manager. So evident is this that it is entirely removed from the realm of discussion.

The effort to be made in 1900 should be for unification, or the placing of all the departments of education, elementary, secondary, and higher, including the common schools and school commissioners, under a non-partisan board, elected for a long term without salary. I would suggest that the board consist of eleven members—one college president or professor, one city superintendent of schools, one high-school principal, and eight men who have no connection in any way with schools of any kind. To be eligible to a position upon this central board a candidate should be

at least thirty-five years of age and should be retired not later than the age of sixty-five years.

It should be the duty of this board to elect a commissioner of education and a deputy, each for seven years—seven affirmative votes being necessary to a choice. The educational work of the State should be organized into bureaus—higher, secondary, and elementary schools, the profession of teaching, and university extension. The head of each bureau should be styled a director, elected by the board upon the nomination of the commissioner of education. These directors should be elected for five years.

The bureau of higher education would include all the colleges, universities, and professional and technical schools; the bureau of secondary education would include all the high schools and academies, public and private; the bureau of elementary education would include all schools below the high school and academy, including kindergartens and common schools; the bureau of education would include normal schools, departments of education in colleges, teachers' classes, and institutes; the bureau of university extension would have charge of libraries, museums, and collections, etc.

The commissioner of education should receive a salary of seven thousand dollars a year, the deputy commissioner a salary of six thousand dollars and the directors each a salary of five thousand dollars a year. To remove the commissioner or his deputy seven affirmative votes of the board and the approval of the Governor should be required. To remove a director seven affirmative votes of the board and the approval of the commissioner of education should be required.

One of the serious defects of our system of education is the present expensive and inefficient administration of the common schools under the supervision of school commissioners. The new law should contemplate a careful revision of this department of our educational system. There should be an educational qualification for school commissioners. No one should be eligible to this position who had not had actual experience in teaching, and to warrant the securing of

suitable candidates the salary should be advanced to at least two thousand dollars a year.

A bill covering some such plan as above outlined should be prepared by school men and introduced at the opening of the next session of the legislature. With this end in view, let the work of organizing the educational interests along these lines be begun at the convocation, continued at the State teachers' association, at the meeting of superintendents, of the commissioners and superintendents, closing with the academic principals at the holiday conference. This subject should have "the lion's share" of every educational program for the balance of the year.

Melvil Dewey Secretary of the Regents, Albany, N. Y.

Our problem is the most important which has come to education in New York. It will require patience as well as skill and knowledge to reach the best solution. We ought not to consider the mistakes or successes of the past, the personality of the officers present or future, or the gain or loss to department or individuals, but to seek thru clear thinking, and full and frank but courteous discussion, the ideal organization of the State's educational interests. The first step is necessarily a clear statement of the points of substantial agreement among students of the problem, which may serve as a starting point, and an equally clear statement of the points on which honest, capable men hold different views.

My contribution is not an argument for or even statement of my personal views, but a mere list of the heads to be considered in the discussion at university convocation and elsewhere during the year. I understand these to be the points of agreement:

1 The time has come for the unification which has been so earnestly desired for nearly half a century. Both departments have now strongly declared for it and the highest efficiency, economy, and harmony demand it.

2 The educational system must be divorced as far as pos-

sible from the influence of partisan politics. The strongest men of both leading political parties are on this point in full accord with the school men.

3 There should be a board to grant and alter charters and perform various other legislative functions which could not properly be intrusted to any individual, and which experience has proved cannot be satisfactorily performed by the 200 members of the legislature. The best thinkers in a dozen leading States are convinced of the necessity of such a board and are asking the needed legislation to secure it. Pennsylvania has already established a council for this purpose. The interests of education are so vast, and so different from the other work of the State, that a carefully constituted board between the legislature and the officer of educational administration is a necessity.

4 A board of education independent of the Regents would involve confusion and expense and increase the difficulties of duality from which we seek to escape. One board is a necessity, a second board would be a serious detriment.

These four points of general agreement would give us a unified system out of politics and including a board of Regents as required by the constitution. The differences arise over various details of election and distribution of functions. This necessary board of Regents may be:

1 As now, without additions or changes in method of election or tenure.

2 As now, without additions, but for new Regents elected hereafter a 14-year term and retirement at 70, as provided for the supreme court and court of appeals.

3 The present board with new members.

4 An entirely new board, to be appointed after legislating out of office the present Regents.

After the question of what the one necessary board shall be, comes the method of its election or appointment. Five ways have been suggested:

1 That the Regents fill their own vacancies, as is customary for trustees of universities and colleges. They would

doubtless be more concerned than any other body to get the best possible man for each vacancy, but many persons would feel less ready to intrust serious State functions to a close corporation.

2 That the institutions in the University elect representatives of the various interests as Regents, according to the growing system of electing alumni trustees. This policy of considering that a college or university really belongs to its alumni, who elect trustees to administer their alma mater for them gains steadily in favor; but the plan applied to the University, tho suggested eight years ago by the statutory revision commission, found no following and was abandoned.

3 That the Regents be elected on the general ticket as are supreme court judges. Even those who urge most strongly that the Regents have the fourteen-year tenure and retirement at seventy, like the highest judges of the State, as a rule object strongly to making their election part of partisan politics by putting it thru the regular caucuses and campaigns.

4 That the Regents be appointed by the Governor with the consent of the senate, thus centralizing responsibility and dissociating the appointment as much as practicable from partisan politics.

5 That the method of election like that of a United States senator be continued as now. This has the advantage of keeping the century-old system unchanged, and in actual theoretic merit is at least next to the best, with the presumption in its favor.

With a unified system out of politics, and a single board of not less than nine Regents, elected as now, by the legislature, or appointed by the Governor, we meet the most important problem: the relations of the Regents to the public-school system, including the licensing of teachers, the apportionment of public money, and the endless detail of administering eleven thousand school districts. There is general agreement that there can be no unification unless the superintendent is elected by the Regents (present or reconstituted), but their mutual relations must be defined. Four

plans are suggested, with practically no advocates for the extremes. Judicious friends of the schools seem generally divided between the second and third.

1 That the public-school department and its superintendent be in exactly the same relation to the University and the Regents as are the college, high school, and home education departments and their directors. This co-ordinates logically the elementary with the secondary, higher, and home education departments into which the State's educational activities are naturally divided.

2 That the public-school superintendent be given much larger statutory powers than the directors of other departments because he has had them since the public-school department was established in 1854 and because he needs them to deal effectively, promptly, and conclusively with the many cases which arise in the affairs of eleven thousand school districts; the superintendent to be subject, within the limits of these greater powers conferred by law, to the ordinances of the Regents in cases where they felt it necessary to act.

3 That the superintendent have practically autonomous powers, substantially the same that he now exercises, the Regents to have no power to make ordinances affecting the elementary schools, but merely to elect the superintendent and appoint and remove on his recommendation and fix the salaries of members of his staff receiving above a certain minimum, leaving all lower positions entirely in his control. If the superintendent abused his powers, the Regents could remove him for cause, after a hearing. If his work were unsatisfactory they would elect another in his place at the end of the six-year term (which has been generally accepted as much better than the present one of three years). But this would be the limit of the Regents' control over the elementary schools.

4 That the superintendent have the powers named above and in addition have entire autonomy in fixing positions and salaries, and in making appointments and removals. This would make him absolutely independent of the Regents except that they would elect and could remove for cause.

There is general agreement that the salary paid to the public-school superintendent should be as high as to the head of any other department in the State government, as the responsibilities and possibilities of the place are not exceeded by any other; but most persons will hold that if New York is to pay seven thousand dollars a year, the Regents should be at liberty to select the best man to be had, regardless of present residence in the State.

The points of difference amount to but little thus far. The greatest are whether the public high schools and the Regents' academic examinations should be placed under the superintendent. If there were no unification and he were elected independently of the Regents, the officers who have for years been giving their entire time to the New York high schools, whose interests they cherish above everything else, are conscientiously and unanimously agreed that serious harm would come from taking these out from the department which stimulated them into life and nourished every stage of their growth.

The superintendent insists that the natural line of division is between tax-supported and other schools. The Regents are equally clear that the customary division into elementary, secondary, higher, and home education is more natural, efficient, and economical.

My hope for satisfactory legislation next year is based on the fact that I find among the special friends of the Regents, and equally among those of the public-school department, a tendency to look at the question broadly, to discuss it thoroly, regardless of mere personal or departmental considerations, and to make such suitable concessions as will bring us to the legislature of 1900 with a bill which all friends of education can support and which can be promptly passed. For the first time we have both departments and practically all educators united in assuring the legislature that we must have certain things. If wise counsels prevail we have immediately before us, not as some fear, a battle of the two departments, but perpetual alliance which will do more for education in New York than any other law since the State was organized.

Regent Charles E. Fitch **Rochester, N. Y.**

The spirit of the editorial on "The Educational Situation in New York State," in the REVIEW for May is so admirable and its general view so wise and prudent that I must return my thanks for it; I venture to add certain suggestions as to details, which differ somewhat from those therein proposed, but do not materially affect the scheme of unification, with which I am in substantial accord. The REVIEW favors unification, by reducing the number of Regents and empowering them to elect the superintendent of public instruction, he retaining his present functions and also to have the care of the high schools. So do I, but I believe in the life tenure for Regents and hope it may be continued. "

The introduction of the White bill, action upon which has been remanded to the next legislature, has inspired earnest discussion among educators from which, it is to be trusted, agreement may ensue taking form in law. An academic sentiment for the unification of the educational system of the State has long obtained, but there has been such confusion of counsels concerning practical measures to be adopted that nothing has been accomplished, each advocate for reform having a plan of his own upon which he was aggressive and uncompromising. This was illustrated signally in the constitutional convention of 1894, the net result of the deliberations of a singularly intelligent committee on education, ratified by the convention, being only to give constitutional expression to the corporation known as the University of the State of New York since 1784, and to prescribe that its affairs shall be administered by Regents whose number shall not be less than nine. Conceding the propriety of unification, its main features have always appeared to me to be as simple as obvious, to wit: the election by the Regents of both the secretary for higher and professional education and the superintendent of elementary and secondary education, their respective duties being distinctly defined and each made responsible to the governing body for the administration of his department. This would give to our educational system coherence, dignity, economical management, and freedom

from the mutations and contentions of party politics, as well as do away with the friction between the two existing departments, which the dual system creates and must perpetuate, in default of lines of demarcation being clearly drawn.

I am one who regrets sincerely that the Regents declined to accept the proposition of the superintendent of public instruction to have that officer elected by the Regents, provided the government of the high schools should be intrusted to him. I hold with the REVIEW that the principle that these schools "should be inspected, examined, and supervised by the same authority, which deals with the elementary and the normal schools, is axiomatic in education," altho the law in force since 1853 has not so regarded it. Had the Regents assented to this compromise, it is probable that unification would have been ordained by the present legislature. But it is not too late for them to concede that the high schools naturally and logically belong to the department of public instruction, as naturally and logically as do the teachers' training classes, which they gracefully resigned to that department, several years ago, upon the conclusive presentation of the case to them by Superintendent Draper. The temper of the Regents at their last meeting was far more conciliatory than at previous consultations, and to this was added the admonition of the Governor that they should submit to such reconstruction of their body as would make for unification. Both strengthen the conviction that they will be amenable to public sentiment in this respect, asserting less vehemently than they have sometimes done their traditions and prerogatives, especially in view of the fact that by yielding somewhat they would secure the substance, even if they surrendered the show, of educational supremacy.

The election of the superintendent by the Regents is preferable to his appointment by the governor—to say nothing of the evil method by legislative ballot—as eliminating partisanship from the process and assuring permanence of tenure for a worthy incumbent. Some governors would, indeed, appoint good officers, regardless of political pressure, but some would not, and it is desirable to divorce education from

politics. It is conceivable that the Regents might be influenced by political considerations in their action, but it is certain that they never have been. Their record in this respect is unblemished, and the credit therefor is to be referred chiefly to their tenure. Altho they owe their election to politics, they are at once placed beyond its temptations and are incorporate in a body which has never permitted politics to interfere with its obligations to the State. I know that there is a popular prejudice against the life tenure—a democratic assumption that it is of aristocratic cast—but it is, nevertheless, the best thing in the organization of the university, the most conducive to independence, intelligence, and integrity in administration, and it is to be hoped that, in the reconstruction of the board, whatever other features may be done away with this feature may be retained; and it is to be noted that the average term of a Regent has been less than sixteen years. Criticism may be justly had upon the size of the board, not upon the tenure of its membership.

I believe that the number of elective Regents is too large, and that a fuller measure both of efficiency and responsibility would be had if it was reduced to the constitutional minimum of nine, altho it is but fair to say that for several years past the attendance at stated meetings has averaged more than twelve. My proposition is that the number of Regents shall be reduced to nine, as deaths and resignations occur, and that there should be some compensation for attendance at board meetings, which should not be less than eight or nine annually. The Regents should be in touch with the office constantly, thus removing the charge which largely obtains that the secretary is the board. I do not think that the Regents need to be educational experts. They should be, as they have been, broad, fair-minded men with general knowledge of educational matters, and no new qualifications for membership are required. The smaller board suggested would be better than the present, but there is no reason why the mode of election should be changed, least of all why it should be revolu-

tionized as outlined by Senator Brown in his amendment to the White bill, which would leave the legislative Regents mere puppets of the elective Regents with their estates administered upon while they are yet living; and I am ill advised if the election of Regents by the people has proved so beneficent in other States that New York should be swift to adopt it. Let us keep what is good in the university while we unify the educational system of the Empire State. Let us not change for the mere sake of changing.

Principal C. E. Franklin, Editor of New York Education, Albany, N. Y.

The White Educational bill, originally a codification of the State educational laws, as introduced in 1899, also drew a line of demarcation between the two departments of education and made the education of defective children compulsory instead of optional, a right instead of a privilege. As reported late in March it contained a " rider " attempting partial consolidation of the Regents and the department of public instruction, putting all institutions supported by public taxation under a State commissioner of education created by the bill.

This bill was commendable in so far as it placed the high schools with the common schools, removing them from that unfortunate distinction so inimical to their interests (since provocative of criticism and financial hampering), resulting from their classification with academies—a name to the average mind smacking of educational advantages beyond the ordinary or necessary, something reserved for the so-called better class. It also removed the State commissioner from the triennial scramble in the legislative caucus of the ascendant party. But it did not consolidate, and by leaving the Regents a literature fund for distribution among private academies (practically denominational schools) it exposed for the criticism of the captious and narrow-minded the amount of funds annually given such schools.

The discussion occasioned by its introduction has been beneficial since the Regents now know that consolidation is inevitable, that a proposition to consolidate under them

as now constituted would not receive ten votes in either branch of the legislature, and that their number must be reduced and their tenure limited. The State department, too, probably now realizes that it was unwise to attempt codification, the absorption of the education of defectives, and consolidation in one bill.

In considering the bill for next year we should learn what educational leaders, and next what the school forces of the State, believe would better our State system. All seem agreed that consolidation is necessary, and that the work should be lodged preferably in an active board of Regents having the selection of the State commissioner of education, should be as free from politics as possible, and that the powers, duties, and limitations of the various divisions of the work should be clearly defined. This the White bill, as amended in the closing hours of the legislature, assumes to do. Is it so drawn as to best accomplish this purpose? It still fails to consolidate, unnecessarily increases the number of Regents, and provides a cumbersome, hodge-podge method of selecting subsequent State commissioners, *i. e.*, by the elective Regents. More objectionable still is the method of selecting the Regents—the election by party vote of two from each judicial district of the State. This puts the board in politics. One party will always have from ten to twelve of the sixteen members and appointments will inevitably be parceled out on geographical lines. Every district will demand and get recognition. The selection of Regents should be lodged with the Governor, who would see that the different parts of the State were represented, and men not so politically dependent would be secured.

One can ascertain much that the bill, amended as I suggest, would accomplish constructively for our educational work by considering some objections to it, which are briefly answered. It is objected (1) that the bill would lodge too much power at Albany; but the power is already there and it is only a question of keeping it divided, with one part in the hands of a political caucus, or giving it to the appointees of a governor responsible to the people, or representatives se-

lected by the people themselves: (2) it would give too much power to State authorities over colleges, cities, and individuals; this power is now substantially possessed, the bill simply defines and makes clear the power and its limitations according to legal decisions; (3) the large cities demur to State supervision at all: until they flock alone such a position is puerile; (4) the State commissioner's decisions should be appealable from; the bill gives the right of appeal in cases where he acts originally or on application. It might be wise to give this right also in decisions made on appeals to the State commissioner, where a justice of the supreme court will certify the matter to be of sufficient importance to warrant it.

If the education of defectives is retained, the provision for sending blind and deaf children away should be made sufficiently explicit to satisfy the different sectarian interests. This the authors of the bill, I am assured, are ready to do.

Principal A. L. Goodrich Free Academy, Utica, N. Y.

There is in my mind no question but that a strenuous endeavor should be made, and made at once, to unify the system of public education in New York State. A divided, or double, control dissipates interest, duplicates or differentiates aims, and increases expense needlessly. The dissipation of interest is manifested in two ways: first, in the lack of common interest and mutual acquaintance between the elementary and secondary public schools; second, in the division, or distraction, of public interest—neither part of the system is as deeply seated in the affections of the people as it should be. This is especially noticeable with reference to the high school. To the east and to the west of us the position of the high school is settled. Its support at public expense is no longer a question for debate. The man who would combat it could hardly obtain a hearing and could command but a feeble following. The same can hardly be said for New York. The precise form of unification is not in itself of much consequence, but may assume importance, and, in New York, probably does, because of concurrent circumstances. There

are, however, two things which seem to me of such vital importance that they should find their place in any scheme which may be adopted. First, that the controlling, or directing, power should be in the hands of educational experts. Second, that this controlling power should not be liable to sudden change. I should therefore object to placing the control in the hands of a single person elected by the people or by the legislature, or appointed by the governor. I should prefer a board of education consisting of ten or twelve members, appointed by the governor or elected by the legislature, each member to serve five or six years, with provision for the appointment or election of one or two new members each year or every second year. All, or at any rate the majority, of this board should be men in actual service in the colleges or schools of the State. The State superintendent should be elected by this Board, should be amenable to them alone, and his term of office should not be less than five years.

A system developed on these lines would provide for stability, flexibility, and independence—three characteristics not mutually contradictory and all highly desirable.

The historical position of the Regents of the university, and the great value of their work, make it, to my mind, very undesirable to eliminate them from any scheme which may be adopted. If constitutionally possible, the Regents might be the board of education. In that case, however, I should prefer to reduce their number and change their term of office. If this be not possible, which I should greatly regret, and a line *must* be drawn, then I have no question but that this line should be so drawn as clearly to include the high schools with the other public schools of the State.

Superintendent Charles E. Gorton Yonkers, N. Y.

I believe the school people of the State unitedly support the proposition that the supervising departments of the school system should be consolidated, and that all public schools supported by direct taxation should be controlled by one central authority. The dual system causes confusion and does not strengthen the morale of the schools.

The high schools are supported on exactly the same basis as all the others, and yet are under supervision that tends to separate and distinguish them from the lower schools. They really represent the last four years of public-school education and nothing more, and there is not one good reason for their separation from the rest of the system. The authority of the department of public instruction, or a similar department, should be extended over all public schools.

A rational method of electing or appointing the man at the head of that department should be adopted. He should be the foremost teacher, and the best all-around school-man in the State. He should be in the State what Commissioner Harris is in the nation; distinctly first by universal acknowledgment. The political system of election has furnished about three State superintendents who ought to have held that great office. The others have been department clerks; judges who have decided cases coming before them; peripatetic lecturers on school law and the high calling of the teacher. They have done almost nothing to uplift the public schools.

The three whom I have in mind have done much to secure higher education for teachers; to establish higher ideals of life in the schools; to broaden courses of study; to build suitable schoolhouses. These three have made their office honorable. But even they were elected because they were good politicians. It was purely good luck for the schools that they proved worthy of their exalted position.

Dr. Albert Leonard . . . Editor of *Journal of Pedagogy*, Syracuse, N. Y.

For the most part I have only commendation for the provisions of the White bill, tho it does not seem to me that the scheme of unification proposed in the bill fully meets the requirements of the situation as it exists in this State. It is my judgment that the two departments at present concerned with the educational forces of the State should be consolidated in the fullest sense. One department alone should be charged with the duties at present attended to by the department of public instruction and by the University of the State

of New York, commonly known as the Regents. All the educational institutions of the State, from the kindergarten to the university, should be placed under the control of a single department of the State government, with an executive officer known as the commissioner of education, whose duties should be clearly defined in the law creating this department. The length of his term of office should be at least six years, and only a man of recognized ability and high standing in the educational profession should be eligible to the position.

It might be wise to provide in the proposed law for the creation of a number of subdepartments, each to be in charge of a deputy commissioner. While much should be left to the discretion of the commissioner of education as regards the various subdivisions of the department, it would seem not altogether superfluous to provide for a deputy commissioner for each of the three grades of educational work—elementary, secondary, and higher. No law, it must be conceded, can define all the qualifications that an educational officer should possess, but there can certainly be no harm in trying to embody in the law a provision which will prevent the appointment of any but men and women of special fitness for directing the educational interests of each field of educational work. With a commissioner of education of the right ideals these results would come as a matter of course. Consolidation of this kind would soon make the educational forces of the State far more efficient than they can ever be under the present arrangement.

While it is not easy to frame a law that will always insure the selection of the man best fitted for any educational position, appointment by the Governor does not commend itself to me as likely in the majority of cases to result in the selection of the man best fitted to direct the educational interests of the State as commissioner of education. Men like Theodore Roosevelt are not always found in the governor's chair, and for this reason the law should provide some means of choosing the commissioner of education that would eliminate all political considerations. Election by a body of

men, like the State board of education in Massachusetts, for instance, would secure this result. It would seem that with some radical changes in the law respecting the selection of the board of Regents, the election of the commissioner of education by the Regents would take the matter out of politics, and insure the choice of a man amply equipped for the duties of so important a position.

Charles Z. Lincoln, Statutory Revision Commissioner . . Albany, N. Y.

It was my fortune as a member of the Statutory Revision Commission to have special charge of the preparation of a bill for the revision of the education laws of the State. The bill was presented to the Legislature in 1898, but too late to receive much consideration. A new bill with some modifications was presented to the Legislature of 1899. Some twelve hundred copies of the bill were distributed in advance of the meeting of the legislature. The committees on education considered numerous suggestions concerning the bill, most of which came from private sources, or rather, from people not directly interested in the common schools. At the last, the chief obstacle to the progress of the bill seemed to be the unwillingness of the legislature to pass it without attempting a consolidation of the two great departments which now administer our educational affairs, namely, the University and the department of public instruction. In preparing the bill I left the law relating to the jurisdiction of these two departments substantially as I found it; but the legislature seemed unwilling to pass the bill and continue present conditions. These conditions exist by virtue of the fact that both the departments named have some jurisdiction in many public schools, and it was thought by prominent members of the legislature that this dual jurisdiction should not be continued.

The superintendent of public instruction has general supervision of all the common schools, but the Regents also have some jurisdiction in these schools by way of visitation of academic departments, and the right to regulate to some extent the course of study therein. These academic depart-

ments, however, form a part of the common schools of the district, and are also under the general supervision of the State superintendent. There are 11,000 school districts in the State, and the Regents have some jurisdiction in about five per cent. of this number, together with the superintendent, who also has exclusive supervision of the other ninety-five per cent. The school population subject to this partial jurisdiction of the Regents is a little more than three per cent. of the entire school population of the State. The problem before the legislature is to determine how this dual supervision may be concentrated. The great bulk of interest, work, and administration in the schools containing academic departments is on the common-school side—the academic department in many cases embracing only a small part of the school.

I think the time has come when there should be a concentration of jurisdiction, and the entire supervision of these schools, including the academic department, should be vested in the department of public instruction, or else a new department should be established, possessing exclusive supervision of all the public schools in every district.

The Senate committee on education attempted a solution of the problem by proposing to abolish the office of State superintendent and the department of public instruction and establish in place thereof a State department of education, and creating the office of State commissioner of education. This commissioner was to be appointed by the governor, and to be given general and exclusive supervision of all the public schools. This would eliminate the University from the public-school system. This plan was opposed by the Regents. The plan was somewhat modified just before adjournment of the legislature by providing for the election of eight additional Regents, one from each judicial district, to hold office for fourteen years. These Regents and the governor were to compose a board with authority, among other things, to appoint a commissioner of education after the first appointment. The bill was left in this form and is therefore still under consideration and subject to discussion. It is sin-

cerely hoped that some plan will be agreed on which will meet the substantial approval of the two great departments, of educational people generally, and the legislature, so that the bill can be passed at the next session.

The prevailing opinion in the legislature seems to be that the bill when passed should provide for a complete consolidation of the educational interests of the State, under one administration, at least so far as public schools are concerned, but I hardly think that anyone would object to this consolidation including also private schools, if a practicable plan can be devised. The plan suggested by the Senate committee, even as modified, does not produce consolidation. There would still be a dual system, for while the Regents are excluded from the academic departments, they are given control of the school libraries, so that they would still be in the common schools, and in more schools than now, tho in a different way.

Substantial consolidation may be accomplished by the creation of a State board of education, to possess all the powers now vested in the department of public instruction, and the University. The members of this board may be *ex officio* Regents, and given enough power as such to justify their existence under that name. This would be at least a nominal compliance with the provisions of the constitution, which preserves and perpetuates the University.

Probably, however, in view of the fact that the University is in the constitution, the smoothest way to bring about consolidation is thru the University itself, by reorganizing the board of Regents, and clothing it with entire jurisdiction and supervision of all schools, both public and private, and libraries. This plan is probably not practicable, however, except by the creation of a new board of Regents, which would mean legislating out of office the present Regents, and the superintendent of public instruction. I think a new board should not include more than nine members, one of whom should be the governor, *ex officio*. The other eight may be elected by the legislature or by the people, but in either case I think they should be chosen by judicial districts,

and for long terms. This board should be given all the powers and jurisdiction now possessed either by the University or the superintendent of public instruction. A superintendent or commissioner of education should be appointed by the Regents and possess practically the powers now possessed by the superintendent of public instruction. By this plan the historic University would be preserved, and the consolidation of all educational interests would be substantially complete. The schools and institutions of learning, from the kindergarten to the college, would be a part of a great system of education, and under one central administration. By the creation of subordinate departments, the work could be distributed and carried on without friction or conflict of authority.

I suppose no one would now advocate the discontinuance of State supervision of education. The great problem before us is to devise a reasonable plan for consolidating and concentrating this supervision with the least disturbance of existing conditions. In considering any plan I think that the common school should receive the first consideration. It lies at the basis of our educational system, and is dear to the heart of the people. The subject should not be approached from the high-school standpoint, except incidentally, but generally and in the broadest sense from the standpoint of the common school.

Out of a total school population of about 1,700,000, I think only about 55,000 are in the high schools, and those have come thru the common school. Shall the University, organized primarily for the supervision of private schools, be permitted to absorb the entire common-school system, or shall the portion of the common schools in which the University has been permitted to exercise some jurisdiction, be made wholly and absolutely a part of the common schools, and under the same exclusive supervision?

The suggestion that the Regents appoint the superintendent of public instruction does not solve the problem; but perhaps the suggestion is intended to carry with it the further suggestion that if the Regents have authority to appoint the

superintendent they should have supervision over him, and over the schools under his immediate jurisdiction. This would mean the ultimate absorption of the common-school system by the University. I see no reason why a university organized or reorganized for that purpose may not properly exercise jurisdiction over the entire school system, public and private, and if the University is to become the central, controlling authority in our school system, it should be reconstructed with that end in view.

This suggestion is not intended either in fact or by implication as a criticism or reflection on the University as now constituted. The board of Regents is composed of eminent and useful citizens, who have achieved distinction in various walks of life; but they were not chosen Regents with any, unless very remote, reference to the public-school system.

It is this fact, doubtless, which led so many persons, while the education bill was under discussion at the late session of the legislature, to suggest that if the common schools were to be moved into the University, a new board should be created, representing common schools, also private, professional, and technical schools, and libraries, thus constituting a representative body of men, who should be charged with the special duty of reorganizing and adjusting all these schools and branches of education under one administration.

It seems hardly probable that any plan of consolidation will be adopted, unless the Regents and the superintendent of public instruction are willing to surrender the power and jurisdiction they now possess, even to the extent of giving up their offices, if necessary, and unite on a plan of reorganization substantially on the lines indicated, with the common school as the basis, and a reconstructed University as the central administrative authority.

If such a consolidation could be effected by a bill containing, so far as practicable, all the law relating to education which can fairly be included in one statute, it would open a new era for education in the State of New York.

Superintendent W. H. Maxwell New York City

I am asked by the editor of the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW to express my views on the White Education law for New York State, which failed to pass at the last session of the legislature. I understand this request to refer to the perplexing problem as to how to reform the State administration and supervision of educational institutions, and not to the details of the very comprehensive measure under discussion. A complete review of this problem I cannot undertake at present. I shall, therefore, confine myself to the enunciation of the principles that should, in my judgment, underlie any legislation on the subject. These principles may be briefly stated as follows:

1 The appointment of State officials to supervise educational work should be removed as far as possible from political influences.

2 This object may possibly be accomplished by (a) placing the appointment or election of such officials in the hands of the Regents of the university and (b) requiring that the officials appointed or elected shall have certain scholastic and professional qualifications.

3 The work of the State educational officials should be confined to the inspection, investigation, and classification of institutions. Passing upon the qualifications of the individual students of approved institutions should be left to local authorities.

4 All of the educational institutions supported exclusively by public money in any unit of educational administration, *e. g.*, a city, should be subject to inspection and investigation on the part of the State by but one authority. In other words the system of schools, from the kindergarten to the high school, should be made as homogeneous as possible. There should not be one system of government for high schools and another for common schools—two parts of one system. Still less should one part of such a system—the high school—be subjected to two different kinds of inspection and required to conform to two different standards.

The State is responsible for public education. Local

authorities are the agents for the State in educational work. The chief duty of State officials should be to see that local authorities perform their duty properly. For this purpose they should have ample power. But this power should be exercised to consolidate, not to distract, local effort.

President William J. Milne . . . State Normal College, Albany, N. Y.

The White Education bill, which failed to pass in the Senate of the State of New York, was a codification and revision of all the laws relating to education then on the statute books. Some of the provisions originally embodied in it were objected to and it had been amended in several parts before its final submission to the senate, but it met its Waterloo because of the plan proposed for settling the troubles which had arisen between the two departments which now have charge of educational matters in the Empire State.

The failure of the bill should not be interpreted to mean that either the members of the legislature or their constituents are opposed to every plan that may be proposed to secure unification and harmony, but simply that they were opposed to the one presented in the bill. It must be conceded that Senator White's measure did not meet all the tests of an ideal statute. In the first place it did not unify, because it left the Regents still in authority over higher education and the commissioner of education in full control of what was not managed by the board of Regents; in the second place, the only consolidation attempted by the bill was to be accomplished by taking some schools from the charge of the Regents and placing them under the commissioner of education. Such a measure could not, therefore, secure the heartiest indorsement of men who favored the establishment of a single department of education instead of the two now in control, and very naturally the bill was opposed by the Regents because it lessened their influence, since it deprived them of the bulk of the work they have been doing and enlarging for quite a number of years. And still, the law would have been a decided improvement upon existing laws,

chiefly because it would have reduced the possibilities of antagonism between the two departments and would very likely have lessened materially the expense of supervision and examination.

Few persons except those engaged in teaching know of the evils of the dual method of supervision now in vogue over education in the Empire State. They are not to be ascribed to the men who are in charge of the departments, but to the irrational legislation which created them and still tolerates their existence. For instance, the Regents and the superintendent of public instruction both conduct examinations at large expense, but the Regents will not credit a person with examinations passed in obtaining a teacher's certificate, nor will the department of public instruction credit those who are seeking licenses to teach with any subject passed under the Regents.

The superintendent of public instruction has by law the power and it is his duty to license teachers, but the Regents have recently been proposing to prevent his licenses from being effective in certain schools. These are some of the many evidences of contention and of clashing, and it is plainly the duty of our legislature to put an end to this unfortunate condition of affairs.

The people of the State wish two things, neither of which could have been secured by the enactment of the proposed measure. They wish first a single department of education instead of the anomalous duality which now exists, and that the bill did not seek to accomplish; they wish in the second place that the schools shall be entirely divorced from politics and the bill made no attempt in that direction; on the contrary, it placed many of the influential appointments in the hands of the dominant political party of the State and was, therefore, objectionable to most people who were not of the dominant party and to some who were. Political conditions and necessities may have compelled the Senator to lay aside his own plans for others that seemed more likely to be acceptable to the political majority in the senate, but the fate of the bill indicates that it failed because it was not radical

enough and because it made the commissioner of education subject to the changes and dictation of political parties or political leaders.

The best and the only rational plan to embody in a law must, therefore, remove the departments from all connection with politics. That can be done most effectively by placing all the educational interests of the State under the care of a body of Regents chosen in a manner similar to that now adopted in choosing the Regents of the University. It may be advisable to limit the term of service either to a certain number of years or to a certain age, but the board should be composed of gentlemen of such high character that they are above suspicion in their attitude toward the control of public education by political parties.

The board of Regents should elect a man to be State commissioner of education who should be directly responsible to them for the management, direction, and control of all the educational interests of the commonwealth. There should be left no evidence of a Regents' department or of a department of public instruction, but both should be under the direction and control of the commissioner of education, who should have power to classify the work and to appoint assistants or deputies to carry it forward in an efficient manner. Harmony, progress, and satisfactory conditions can be secured in no other way. Temporary expedients which might remedy for a short time some of the sorest evils will not be acceptable to the people, but radical and sensible legislation will meet with universal favor. The details of the proposed law cannot be considered here, but the difficulties will be largely removed when an earnest endeavor is made to unify and consolidate the two departments without regarding the rights or the dignity of either department.

Charles R. Skinner State Superintendent, Albany, N. Y.

We need legislation which will place all the public schools over which the State has authority under one administrative head. There will be harmony in our educational work only when a clean-cut line of demarcation shall be established,

separating public from private schools. Observation and experience have convinced me that it is difficult to establish or define a plan of unification of educational interests which will thoroly and satisfactorily direct the interests of public schools and at the same time supervise a system of private schools. State control is a natural boundary. Unification can extend only to the point where the State concludes its legitimate work and private instruction begins. There is no justification for divided responsibility in supervising a public school, giving one portion to the department of public instruction and another to the Regents of the University. Such a policy will always create friction and discord. Public schools are State institutions, authorized by law, sustained by public taxation, and free to all. Private schools are managed by individuals, independent in their organization, controlled by personal interests, and sustained by contributions, endowments, and tuition.

The founders of our school system evidently believed in a line of separation between the public schools and those controlled by the Regents of the University. The law of 1795, which made the first appropriation for the support of common schools, contained a provision that "Nothing in this act contained shall be so construed as to extend to any college or academy which now is or hereafter may be incorporated under the authority of the Regents of the University or by virtue of any law of this State."

Under the consolidated school law of this State the department of public instruction has the same jurisdiction over high schools as over any other public school, and it has the same jurisdiction now that it has ever held since the establishment of the school system. The law gives the department absolute control over all matters relating to the building, heating, lighting, and ventilating of schools; the absolute power of licensing all teachers in the public schools; the apportionment of public money on the basis of the number of qualified teachers employed for the legal term and on population of counties and cities; power to direct the number and character of the reports of attendance; power to enforce the com-

pulsory education law; power to consider and decide appeals in all matters relating to school administration; the right of visitation on the part of the State superintendent or his representatives; the right of inspection by school commissioners; absolute jurisdiction in the approval of courses of study in high schools in connection with admission to teachers' training classes; absolute control over all matters relating to the professional training of teachers in normal schools, teachers' institutes, and training classes.

I know of no good reason why high schools should not be under the exclusive direction of the department of public instruction. It is not conceivable that the interests of high schools would suffer by the change proposed. State aid would be in no way endangered. On the contrary, it would be increased, with the additional advantage that apportionments would be regulated and directed by fixed laws and not by variable ordinances. The proposed transfer would not mean a weakening of the high schools, but rather a strengthening, by relating them more closely to the primary and grammar grades. There should be no break in the public-school system, from the opening of the kindergarten to the closing of the high school. Such a change would mean a larger attendance and better educational advantages to boys and girls thruout the State who now enjoy them only by the payment of tuition. Let the State make necessary provision by which every child who desires shall be educated free in the high school nearest to his home. If the State gives a high-school training free to any pupil it owes it to every pupil. There should be no favoritism or distinction.

A secondary school is either a public school or it is a private school. If it is a public school it should be related to the public school system. It should touch in some way every other school of the system. The high school should be the most democratic branch of an educational scheme. It should not be separated from any other part of the system by imaginary barriers of class, method, or tuition. These conditions seem to me unattainable unless all public schools are placed under a single administration having general direction

of courses of study for all grades—primary, intermediate, and high school.

Regent T. Guilford Smith Buffalo, N. Y.

When Alexander Hamilton conceived the idea of founding the University of the State of New York, whose function was to be that of a supervising university, to use President Eliot's term, he formulated certain vital principles which should govern this organization, which have never been changed and which have contributed in a very large degree to its continued success. Among these may be noted the life tenure of office, which has been a characteristic from the first, and in the opinion of some of the best friends of education, has been a bulwark against which the waves of party politics have beaten in vain.

While many of us believe in life tenure, not only in the Regents' office, but in the judiciary of the State, yet the trend of public opinion is rather against this feature in office-holding in the United States. This has been notably changed in the judiciary, and while many of the friends of life tenure looked upon this innovation with misgivings, yet upon the whole their fears have not been realized yet, and it seems reasonable to suppose that an elective judiciary will be as thoroly respectable, and hence as thoroly respected, as an appointed judiciary was expected to be. In view of this fact, it might be possible to modify the life tenure of the Regents by limiting their period of office, so that on reaching a certain age the active Regent might become a Regent emeritus, adopting as the age limit either that of the army, the navy, or the judiciary. This modification of the life tenure might be, therefore, acceptable to the friends both of the life tenure and of the shorter period. If the age of retirement was fixed say, at seventy years, the Board of Regents would get the best work out of all its members, and could even beyond that time receive the benefit of the counsel of the emeritus Regent even if his individual power were limited so far as votes, etc., were concerned.

With this modification, it might be possible, therefore, to

have the superintendent of public instruction elected by the Regents, and thus keep the office out of the political field, which seems so desirable to the friends of education of all parties. If this were done unification would really be an accomplished fact, and the University of the State of New York would extend its influence over the entire educational system, from the higher education to the most elementary. All the schools would therefore be free from politics and receive the same consideration at the hands of the Regents as the higher education has always received up to the present time. As a member of the board for ten years I can testify to the utter absence of political feeling in the board or in its transactions, and as far as I have ever been able to discover, politics never entered into the consideration of any of the Regents when questions were up for discussion and for adjustment. This is just exactly what Alexander Hamilton wished to accomplish when he established the University, and it is just exactly what the best thought of to-day in all educational circles wishes to see extended and confirmed.

To-day we see the ill effect of political influences in the normal schools thruout the State; not but what they have done good work and are capable of doing better, but if they were removed absolutely and entirely from political influences I am quite sure that they would take a very much better position than they do now and would be more in touch with the best educational ideas.

With these two objects in view, viz.: unification and no politics, which was the underlying sentiment of the original formation of the Regents of the University, it seems to me that a bill might be framed to accomplish just what the White Education bill of the past season failed to grasp, and which undoubtedly contributed to its defeat. I am inclined to think that the modification suggested would meet the views of all fair-minded educational men, would not increase the number of officers, would hold on to all that is good in the department of public instruction, and remove whatever causes of criticism have existed or which may exist in any bill which undertakes unduly to exalt this department.

In a convenient phrase which still lingers between slang and idiom, the question of unification is "up to" the Regents. Whether it shall be accomplished or not, and whether the present duplication of effort and expense and the resulting friction shall come to an end or not, depend upon the Regents. Public opinion in the State demands unification, the legislature is ready for it, the department of public instruction has waived various points of justifiable pride and has accepted it, the Regents themselves have voted an academic declaration in favor of it.

The Regents are a constitutional body and cannot be displaced. They therefore have the right of way. Unification can come most easily and most speedily thru them. But here is the rub. There is violent and widespread opposition to increasing the powers of the Regents as at present constituted. Their life tenure, for which much may be urged in theory, is not generally liked. As a body they are not popular and they are not representative. Their least wise and least judicious members too often represent them before the public. They are chosen for political considerations. They have excited violent animosities. Their well-oiled political machinery for deluging the press and the legislature with letters and protests about measures which the writers of the letters and protests have never read, and of which they know little or nothing, has aroused indignation and resentment. All these are facts to be reckoned with. They cannot be brushed aside because of the undoubted good the Regents have done or may do.

For these reasons public opinion and the legislature demand with (we think) substantial unanimity that the law governing the choice and the tenure of the Regents be overhauled before unification be had by putting the power to elect the State superintendent of public instruction in their hands. If the Regents co-operate in securing such an overhauling of the law, unification will be easy, perhaps unanimous. If they do not, unification will either fail, or it will come in a way and take on a form that will not be agreeable

to the Regents. That seems to us to describe the situation as it appears at present.

The board of Regents is too large. The *ex officio* members, except the governor, ought to go. The number of elective Regents ought to be cut down. The constitutional minimum is nine. The nearer the number is brought to nine the more efficient the board will be. It would be simplest perhaps to legislate the present board out of office, and build a new one from the foundation up. But that would be pretty drastic, and in view of the political strength of the Regents, probably impossible. In addition, it might deprive the State of the services of the very best of the Regents, those whom no one wants to lose. In view of all this, we suggest again, as in February last, the following plan of unification:

- 1 That a department of education be established, to include the University of the State of New York and the department of public instruction.

- 2 The University of the State of New York to have sole jurisdiction over all higher and professional education, and over all secondary education not tax-supported.

- 3 The department of public instruction to have sole jurisdiction over all elementary education, all tax-supported secondary education, and the training and licensing of teachers for the same.

- 4 The department of education to be administered by a board of Regents of education, this board to consist of the governor, *ex officio*, of the nineteen elective Regents now in office, and of eight additional Regents to be appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate. These appointed Regents to serve for the term of a judge of the court of appeals (14 years) and to be subject to the provisions as to retirement at seventy years of age which govern those judges. The eight Regents first appointed shall draw lots for length of term, in order that their terms might not all expire at one and the same time. As the offices of the present elective Regents become vacant thru death or resignation, no successors to them to be chosen. In time, therefore, and

without legislating any of the present elective Regents out of office, the board would be reduced in number to nine: eight appointed Regents and the governor.

5 The Regents of education should be, *ex officiis*, Regents of the University of the State of New York, with all the present powers of the Regents except so far as these are altered in carrying out the present suggestions.

6 The Regents of education should elect the State superintendent of public instruction for a term of six years, and should have the power to remove him for cause stated and after a hearing, by a two-thirds vote. The State superintendent should possess all of his present powers, unimpaired, and should in addition have exclusive jurisdiction over tax-supported secondary schools (high schools), and the training and licensing of teachers therefor.

These suggestions, if carried out, would (1) unify the educational system of the State, and (2) draw a plain line of demarcation between its two constituent parts, the University and the department of public instruction. Should it happen that the designation of the first eight appointive Regents fell to Governor Roosevelt, he would certainly take pride in seeing to it that no man against whom any just charge of unfitness or partisanship could be brought, received an appointment. He would be certain to tender appointments to members of each of the great parties. This suggestion is therefore hardly open to attack on political grounds, at least not as things are at present.

This plan seems to us thoroly practical, and to pay due heed to the *amour propre* of men now in office.—EDITOR

VII

DISCUSSION

EDUCATION AND INDIVIDUALITY

I recall with some amusement that when a boy at public school, engaged one day in experimenting on a sum in arithmetic, the teacher coming along the line of the class at the blackboard observed my work rather critically, and a girl standing near, whose good opinion I desired, taking the cue from the looks of the teacher, remarked, *sotto voce*, "lazy people take the most pains." This snub to my individuality and originality was a deterrent for some time. Everyone can recall incidents of his school career where his individuality was mistreated and even held up to public ridicule. Undoubtedly education is now passing to a higher phase where individuality is more respected, where the method of authority—"teacher says so"—is being supplanted by the inductive method, the personal investigation and test. Recitation is now more than reading from an invisible book: it is the student giving expression to his own observations and thoughts. But still it is doubtful whether educators as a whole yet really appreciate the value of the individual method and practically apply it.

Education is individualization. Our complex swift-moving civilization above all demands the man of resource, adaptability, fertility, versatility; the man who has fully come to himself, knows himself, and can rationally direct himself. Democratic civilization can only be preserved from herd-action and partisanship, and so from demagogery and plutocracy, by education bringing each man into the freedom of his full individuality, by giving every citizen the opportunity and basis for forming intelligent convictions, and the stimulus to live up to them. The biological and social importance of individuality can then be hardly overestimated. Philosophically we must imply from actual evolution that self-realization is the trend and end of humanity, that is, a self-

conscious co-operative development of experience into ever higher and higher levels. The largest law of evolution in every aspect is individualization, thru both specialization and generalization.

Modern education has certainly improved greatly in stimulating individuality thru elective studies, methods of self-government, and the following out of natural interest, but it is still very defective. Instruction is yet mainly external and a task, and not vital growth of self-activity. A student to whom I mentioned the desirability of giving college credits for literary society work, depreciated it as giving compulsion and restraint to what was now free and self-active effort. In colleges we find this general distinction only too strongly drawn between the free activities of the students in their various "outside" organizations and the task of the classroom. But the true evolution by self-activity comes mainly in the "outside" activities, and most students receive their real education thus, while the formal instruction of professors absorbed in their own researches has no vital significance for them. But this disunity in student life is false and injurious: the life should be a unit of free self-activity. As the play-life of the child has been absorbed into kindergarten instruction, so the manifold free life of youth, with all its wealth of natural interests, should be absorbed into the higher instruction thru a complete *camaraderie* of students and teacher. The continuity of a single self-active life should permeate the whole period of education. When the individual has come freely and fully to himself the period of formal education naturally ends. But the school should mingle with the world and be of it, and the student should truly *graduate* into it. The petted senior shot plump into a cold and heartless world feels the transition most keenly and often suffers much harm. An ideal education must provide a constant and increasing touch with practicalities of life so that the individual does not feel himself thwarted by an abrupt entrance to a strange and confusing world, but grows into his real place where his individuality will have largest scope. There must be, then, some way both of insuring continuity of the student life with the life of the world, and also a continuity within student life

itself, if individuality is to have the real continuous growth it demands.

The individuality of the teacher should ever be stimulative rather than repressive of the individuality of the student. But too often the teacher speaks *ex cathedra*, seeks to make disciples, and overwhelms his pupils with his own personality. A student, being asked what he was reading in a certain course, replied "nothing; the professor can tell me more in five minutes than I could read in an hour." This is to be spoon-fed. But the true teacher retires into the background, and in the progress of education becomes less and less a direct force. And in truth, the teacher is a necessary evil in education; the self-taught are the best taught. But the teacher must minimize himself, he must do this with supreme skill and wisdom, so that the individual always tends to develop freely on the highest plane. He must study the individual with the utmost attention, not by charts and reports, but by direct observation and intimate acquaintance. And in order that there may be the deepest insight and greatest continuity of treatment the student should have as few teachers as possible. In the earliest stages one teacher suffices for all subjects, in the intermediate stages one for natural sciences, one for languages, one for history and geography should suffice; in the highest stages of general education perhaps this number should be doubled. But the best teacher must study the student not merely in class work or in casual intercourse, but by himself. Individualistic work for the individual, and private conference with him, ought to be made a definite part of school work. Say at a minimum each student ought to have a half hour a week private conference with each instructor. The student, by pursuing subjects of natural interest suggested by himself, will then learn independence and initiative; he will study by himself, of himself, and for himself. And the teacher must have a free hand and leisure for constant observation, study, reflection with other teachers. Hence, in secondary education, two classes and two half-hours with individuals would be a full day's work, and less than this in higher education. And the teacher cannot afford time to be engaged in special research. Constant

daily progressive pedagogic is his true specialty. The teacher who is absorbed in developing a subject can give only passing notice to the development of an individual. Of course a thoroly individualistic education is the destruction of fixed formal courses, but a true education demands and must have indefinite elasticity. The Bowdoin experiment is toward individuality, and tho hardly thoro, will be watched with great interest.

The great determinant of individuality is choice, and election by the student must permeate the whole field of education if individuality is to have real scope. The choice can be provided not merely by options and limited modes of choice as regards studies and subjects from day to day and term to term, but by choice as to methods of dealing with subjects. And some basis must be given for election either by trial thru probationary periods or thru brief courses. The scholar in all grades in an ideal education studies what, how, when he likes. He acquires and cultivates tastes of his own free will. Of course we are not advocating mere "wild" growth, but in all his self-activity the scholar receives suggestion and advice from his mentor. In every school, indeed, some *protégés* are seen, and in a natural and sympathetic way particular teachers are drawn toward particular students to whom they act as philosophers, guides, friends. Too often these connections are injurious, the teacher's powerful individuality oppressing rather than stimulating the individuality of the student. Still the wise open-minded mentor is at all stages of education a most desirable factor, and there should be a general choosing of mentors by students, and a regular recognition and organization of the mentor activity on the part of the teachers. Thus only can the real individuality of all students be best known and best cared for.

The individuality which is sought is not the instinctive, but the self-conscious and rational. The student must develop a self-criticism and self-appreciation which shall be a just valuation not in mere competitions with others, nor absolutely—tho the student should be capable of this—but mainly relatively to himself, as an expression of his individuality.

He must know his best work and have an impartial self-satisfaction in it. By reaching real objectivity toward himself he will lose conceit, the vice of mere instinctive individuality.

The individuality which education would promote means self-reliance and poise, but not a savage separative independence. A social self-activity is the demand of civilization where each individual is tolerant of and even helpful to all other individuality. And the student should become gradually emancipate from direct control and supervision, so that his education, which begins with constant oversight, ends in his graduate courses with but an hour or so a month of contact with the teacher. Still even in early years much time to themselves is useful to some youth, as, for instance, Wordsworth, whose masters, as Leslie Stephen describes, had "their great merit" in that "they had cared nothing for modern methods of drill and competition. They had left him free to take long rambles over the fells, scampers upon ponies, birds-nesting expeditions, and skating parties on frozen lakes. He had neither been trimmed in to a model boy nor forced into rebellion, but had grown up after his own fashion." Thus it was that Wordsworth attained that completeness and sanity of self-development which gave him his power and utility in the world. Thus also was Wordsworth saved from eccentricity, which is mere repressed and perverted originality.

We infer that individualism is the supreme end in education specially from this, that only thus is the lower sphere of evolution, that is the competitive struggle of existence, overpassed. The individual, fully come to himself, has no longer need of the external spur of competitive strife. He no longer seeks to imitate or surpass, but only achieve the highest and freest expression of himself. The freedom which we want and need is not to be like others, but to be ourselves. Hence the real education is that which provides complete scope for individuality, promoting breadth of view without indifference, originality without crankiness, initiative without self-assertion, tenacity without obstinacy, and self-confidence without conceit.

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VIII

REVIEWS

1. **The paidologist**: the organ of the British Child-study Association. Cheltenham [England]: Miss MARY LOUCH, editor. April, 1899, vol. 1, No. 1. 75 p. Published three times yearly. Annual subscription, 1s. 9d.
2. **Zeitschrift für pädagogische Psychologie**, herausgegeben von Dr. Ferdinand Kemsies. Berlin: HERMANN WALTHER. Januar und März, 1899. 1 Jahrgang, Hefte 1 und 2, 112 p. Published bi-monthly. Annual subscription, Mk. 8.
3. **Revue internationale de pédagogie comparative**: organe mensuel consacré à l'éducation des anormaux, des enfants soumis au régime disciplinaire, et des élèves normaux. Nantes [France]: AUGUSTE MAILLOUX, rédacteur en chef. Mars, 1899. Première année, No. 1. 75 p. Annual subscription, 10 francs.

1. The advice of Vergerius, the humanist educator of Padua, in his classic treatise on the education of the boy, should be commended to the editorial committee of the British Child-study Association: "A parent owes three duties to his children. The first of these is to bestow upon them names of which they will not be ashamed. For not seldom, out of caprice, or even indifference, or perhaps from a wish to perpetuate a family name, a father in naming his child inflicts upon him a misfortune which clings to him for life." Several fruitless efforts have before been made to characterize the study of children as paidology; and altho Professor Mosellanus of Leipzig gave that title to his study of boys¹ as early as 1521, students of childhood in Europe and our own country have quite generally declined to use the word, because it is awkward and inexpressive. This fact was obvious to the management of the new magazine, as is evidenced by this statement in the editorial announcement: "The title of the magazine may seem to call for apology. It is intended to be unattractive to children and to those who, from lack of special interest in the topics treated of, would be 'bored' by that which the title represents."

¹ *Pædologia Petri Mosellani Protegensis, jam denuo in puerorum usum diligenter ædita et recognita.* Moguntiae, 1521.

In spite of its name *The paidologist* contains a half dozen articles of special interest to students of childhood. Mr. H. Holman, H. M. inspector of schools, contributes a notable quantitative study on imitateness in school children; Professor Lloyd Morgan has succinct answers to the questions, "What is the end child-study has in view and what are the means by which we may hope to attain that end;" Dr. T. S. Clouston tells what the brain has to do in youth besides getting educated; Dr. R. Langdon-Down has a brief article on boys' imagination in play; President G. Stanley Hall discusses the aims of child-study, Professor Earl Barnes the methods of child-study, and Mr. Will S. Monroe presents an outline for the study of the perceptive power of children. There are five discriminating book reviews, all of which are signed, and reports from affiliated branches of the British Child-study Association at Edinburgh, London, Cheltenham, Birmingham, Manchester, and Derby. The magazine is edited by Miss Mary Louch of Cheltenham College, under the direction of the British Child-study Association, which has on its executive board Dr. T. S. Clouston, Professor Lloyd Morgan, Mr. H. Holman, Professor Patrick Geddes, Mr. M. W. Keatinge, Professor Earl Barnes, Dr. George E. Shuttleworth, and others well known to American teachers.

2 In a country where investigation and research are so unduly exalted as in Germany, a review devoted to the educational application of psychological studies comes something as a surprise. In a judicial article, covering the first twenty pages of the initial number of the *Zeitschrift*, Dr. Kemsies points out with great clearness the close relations of psychology and education. What is needed is co-ordination of these interests. Much, as he admits, remains to be investigated, but in the domain of genetic psychology, at least, it is certainly time that some partial reports be made. Jonas Cohn follows with an article on the service rendered psychology by teachers thru statistical studies on children, and Hermann Gutzmann traces the origin and development of speech in children and in primitive people. The number concludes with a *résumé* of the local psychological associations at Berlin, Breslau, and Munich.

The second number of the *Zeitschrift* opens with a comprehensive inductive study of children's drawings by Karl Pappenheim. It is of interest to note that the article follows in the main, both in methods and conclusions, the lines marked out by Barnes and Lukens in the study of the spontaneous drawings of American children. Max Meyer follows with a discussion of the psychology of sound and its significance in musical instruction; George Flatau diagnoses the psychical abnormalities of incipient chorea, and Dr. Kemsies contributes a brief on the mooted question of the home study of school children. Judged by these two numbers, the new German *Zeitschrift* promises well. The articles are more comprehensive than those in the *Paidologist* or the *Revue*; and the few topics presented in each number are of vital interest alike to the teacher and the psychologist.

3 The opening article of the new French journal published in the interests of defective children is by the writer. It is a study of the feeble-minded children in the schools of California. By means of questionnaires the writer obtained from the teachers of that State data bearing on the mental and physical characteristics of more than ten thousand children in the public schools. The study he admits is in no sense conclusive, but he believes that it is suggestive in at least this—that there are many children in our public schools who could be more economically and wisely trained in special schools for the feeble-minded than in the public schools where they now are, and many more who, altho not positively feeble-minded, skirt the borderland of abnormality, and because of their large numbers—about ten per cent. of the more than ten thousand children investigated—should be placed under the care of teachers who know something at least of minor psychical abnormalities.

Dr. Hamon du Fougeray, in the second article, discusses the provisions in France for the care and training of defective children. Compared with our own country, France is clearly in the rear in the matter of educating feeble-minded children, and this is all the more surprising when we recall that all our early ideas and ideals on the education of the mentally deficient came to us from France thru Seguin. One notes also

with surprise the absence of institutions in France for the care and training of crippled, deformed, and paralyzed children. There is an excellent descriptive article by M. Émile Grégoire of Brussels on the schools for the deaf, blind, and feeble-minded, in Belgium, and a careful presentation of the associations of mothers in America for the study of children. This article is by Miss Harriet A. Marsh of Detroit, and she enumerates the lines pursued by the mother's club connected with the Hancock School in Detroit. A number of reviews follow, several of which are signed. This journal is concerned with a phase of educational study concerning which no live teacher can afford to continue uninformed. Defective children may, in a measure at least, be trained to outgrow their defects and made helpful to themselves and useful to others; and it is the aim of this new French review to help teachers along in this arduous but necessary work.

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American prose—Selections, with critical introductions by various writers and a general introduction—Edited by GEORGE RICE CARPENTER, Professor of rhetoric and English composition in Columbia University. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1898. 465 p. \$1.00.

The question whether our American literature can be said to have qualities marking it as independent of the parent British is not very important. It is important, however, to set forth by argument and illustration the idea that literature has been produced in the United States, especially during the period under the Constitution, which possesses genuine value. Certainly our native product is well worth study: judged by comparative standards some of it, at least,—witness Irving, Poe, Hawthorne, Lowell, Holmes, Whitman,—has made a transatlantic appeal. It has, moreover, for us Americans an interest over and above this: to wit, as a typical expression of national thought. Much-loved writers like Longfellow and Whittier, whatever their foreign rating, have a special message to their countrymen. Professor Carpenter has arranged for chronologic examination a body of our literature in an important division of it—prose. His book follows in method

the series of manuals instituted by Professor Craik and having in view the English writers. The editor, in a brief but suggestive introduction, propounds a comparatively fresh thesis: he holds that prose is the most distinctive contribution to literature made in the United States. At first blush, remembering the older heptarchy of American singers, one hesitates to agree: but further reflection leads one to justify the claim. It is in prose rather than in poetry that our writers have done work best fulfilling the twofold obligation of all good literature: the creation of beauty under the laws of art, and the portrayal of the life and ideals of a people. We have no such representative creation in verse as that of Hawthorne; Emerson and Lowell were greater as prose writers than as poets. The most debatable author is Poe, whose poetry is more unique than his fiction, and who indubitably remains as a great artist in verse-forms. But in his case there is a woeful failure on the side of national interpretation—partly, but by no means wholly, to be explained by the fact that he wrought so early. I feel quite sure that Professor Carpenter's contention would be approved by critics appraising our accomplishment dispassionately, from without. In any case, the proposition provokes stimulating thought.

Professor Carpenter also seems to me quite right in saying that it is substance rather than style for which our writers are notable. His summary of their broad characteristics—resoluteness, nobility, simplicity, and humor—is satisfactory. Perhaps "resoluteness" is not the happiest word to convey what is in mind; tho I hardly know what to substitute for it. "Practicality" might be named as a fifth attribute—a certain dominant quality—one phase or aspect of which is, I dare say, implied in the word "simplicity," and another in the word "directness." Every student of American literature must feel that the hand-to-hand struggle with concrete objective difficulties has left its impress upon our letters.

The scheme of the work is to introduce each author by a short, critical essay (with a sufficient biographic note in smaller type), following such with typical selections from the works. The plan thus involves co-operation—our time's literary application of the patriotic motto, united we

stand—and the editor has been very successful in securing papers that are often illuminative and always dignified and adequate. There is a noticeable lack of mere hack-work and the encyclopedist's mechanical massing of facts. The papers aim to be, and are, interpretative. The names of the chosen interpreters in many cases illustrate this: thus, Colonel Higginson writes of the early novelist Browne, and of Cooper and Thoreau; Professor C. E. Norton of Lowell, Mr. Howells of Curtis, John Fiske of Parkman, and Professor Brander Matthews of Irving. The worthies represented number twenty-four. A couple of dozen writers to cover and stand for 250 years of activity may not seem many to some; but it must be understood that the living are excluded—no doubt on the sound principle that a sober literary estimate is in direct proportion to the distance between critic and criticised. With the living under consideration, Warner, Howells, Burroughs, James, and half a dozen others might be candidates for admission. It would be a temptation to emphasize the admission of but one woman writer—Mrs. Stowe—in the list, were this not an age when it is dangerous to forget that there is no sex in literature. The absence of any selections to follow Mr. Norman Hapgood's critique of Dr. Holmes is an illustration of the difficulties besetting the editor who essays to make such a volume: the publishers were obdurate. To be commended is the relegation to an appendix of several typical passages from colonial writers; such writings, having little or no literary value, when placed at the fore of a book, make too harsh a beginning for the young, who are to be gently inducted into the riches of our native product in letters.

Altogether, this volume does admirably well a thing worth doing; the only reason it will not constitute a permanent register of the facts is due to death's tiresome (and tireless) habit of adding almost yearly to the writers who demand a place in any such ranging of literary representatives.

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NOTES ON NEW BOOKS

Mention of books in this place does not preclude extended critical notice hereafter

The world's painters and their pictures, by Deristhe L. Hoyt, is a condensed, but very complete, history of art. It has a number of illustrations typical of the art of each country and school and is excellently arranged. A notable feature is the chapter at the end entitled, "Interesting information for students of pictures" (Boston: Ginn & Co., The Athenæum Press, 1898. 272 p. \$1.40).—*The recovered continent*, by Otto Mundo, is a fantastic tale of the style of Bellamy's *Looking backward* (Columbus, Ohio: The Harper-Osgood Co., 1898. 331 p. 25 cents).—*Nature study in elementary schools*, by Mrs. L. L. Wilson, is a most attractive introduction to the world of nature and well calculated to appeal to the child mind (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1899. 253 p. 25 cents).—*Paul et Virginie*, by Saint Pierre, has been edited with introduction and notes by Oscar Kuhns. It is a convenient little edition (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1898. 160 p. 50 cents).—*United States history in elementary schools*, by L. L. W. Wilson, Ph. D., is a manual for teachers and is full of helpful suggestions (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1898. 53 p. 30 cents).—*Deutsche Gedichte*, for high schools, selected and arranged by Hermann Müller, is a small collection of well-known and popular German poems (Boston: Ginn & Co., The Athenæum Press, 1898. 71 p.).—*Bird-world*, by J. H. Stickney, assisted by Ralph Hoffman, is a charming book for children, beautifully and profusely illustrated by Ernest Seton Thompson. It should be very valuable for school use in the intermediate grades (Boston: Ginn & Co., The Athenæum Press, 1898. 211 p.).—*Three narrative poems*, edited in the Academy Series by George M. Watrous, A. M., contains Coleridge's *Ancient mariner*, Arnold's *Sohrab and Rustum*, and Tennyson's *Enoch Arden*, with notes. There is also a short sketch of each author (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1898. 107 p. 30 cents).—*Heroes of the middle west*, by Mary Hartwell Catherwood, is an interestingly written account of the French occupation, from the discovery of the Upper Mississippi to

the fall of Fort Chartres (Boston: Ginn & Co., the Athenæum Press, 1898. 141 p. Plates).—*Groundwork of number*, a manual for primary teachers, by A. S. Ross and S. E. Lang, is an attempt to explain the nature of number. It contains a suggestive set of exercises and will be of valuable practical assistance (Toronto: The Copp, Clark Co., Limited, 1898. 123 p. 50 cents).—*Goethe's Egmont*, together with Schiller's essay upon it and also his (Schiller's) sketch of the life of Egmont, edited, with introduction and notes, by Max Winkler, Ph. D., is a valuable edition of this popular classic. It was a happy thought to publish it with Schiller's Jannus criticism. The introduction contains an able discussion of this essay, together with an account of the life and times of Goethe (Boston, U. S. A.: Ginn & Co., The Athenæum Press, 1898. 276 p.).—*Coleridge's Ancient Mariner, Kubla Khan and Christabel*, edited with notes and introduction by Tuley Francis Huntington, is a compact and convenient little edition (New York and London: The Macmillan Co., 1899. 109 p. 25 cents).—*Shakspeare's Macbeth*, edited by Charles W. French, is another of this successful English classic series (New York and London: The Macmillan Co., 1898. 185 p. 25 cents).—*Emerson's Select essays and poems*, edited by Eva March Tappan, contains three of Emerson's most popular essays and a few of the best known poems (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1898. 120 p. 30 cents).—De Quincey's *Revolt of the Tartars* has been edited and annotated by William Edward Simons (Boston: Ginn & Co., The Athenæum Press, 1898. 84 p.).—English Nursery Rhymes have been translated into German prose by George Hempl, under the title *The easiest German reading for learners young and old*, with questions for a drill in speaking (Boston and London: Ginn & Co., The Athenæum Press, 1898. 82 p.).—*First steps in the history of our country*, by William A. and Arthur May Mowry, is a series of biographical sketches of Jannus character in American history, told in a taking narrative style. It is to be used as an introduction to the study of history (New York, Boston, Chicago: Silver, Burdette & Co., 1898. 311 p. Plates. 60 cents).—*Altes und Neues*, by Karl Seligman, is a German

reader for young beginners. It contains the usual moral-printing selections to be found in most primers (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1899. 125 p.).—*French Lyrics*, edited, with introduction and notes, by Arthur Graves Canfield, is quite an elaborate collection of short French poems to be used as an introduction to the study of French lyric poetry, and is a rough sketch of their historic development (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1899. 374 p. \$1.00).—Frederick Starr's *American Indians* is an interesting book for boys and girls. It is well illustrated (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1899. 227 p. 45 cents).—A very useful book of a novel type is Waddell's *Arithmetic of chemistry* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1899. 138 p. 90 cents).—Mr. Elbridge S. Brooks has put together a capital lot of tales in his *Stories of the Old Bay State*. They begin with the early voyages and the first settlement and come down to the building of the Hoosac Tunnel and the invention of the telephone (New York: American Book Co., 1899. 284 p. 60 cents).—*Four American naval heroes*, Jones, Perry, Farragut, and Dewey, by Mabel Borton Beebe, is a new book for school children. It is dryly written and admirably illustrated (New York: Werner School-book Co., 1899. 254 p. 50 cents).—*Elementary physiology*, by Benjamin Moore, is an excellent outline sketch of the subject, valuable for the general reader (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1899. 294 p. \$1.20).—George Eliot's *Silas Marner*, with an introductory sketch by the author, has been edited by W. Patterson Atkinson (Boston and Chicago: Allyn & Bacon, 1899. 202 p. 40 cents).—The *Niebelungen Lied*, *Parcival*, *Gudrun*, *Tristan und Isolde* have been retold in simple German suitable for students by Sigmon M. Stern. There is an exceedingly interesting introduction (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1899. 225 p. \$1.20).—*Hugh Gwyeth, a roundhead cavalier*, by Beulah Marie Dix, is a charmingly told story for young people (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1899. 376 p. \$1.50).—*Sappho*, by Franz Grillparzer, has been edited, with an introduction, by Chiles Clifton Ferrell. It is the first time that a work of this famous Austrian dramatist has been edited either in this country or England. It should be of

great interest to students of German (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1899. 143 p. 65 cents).—Rosegger's *Die Schriften des Waldschulmeisters*, abridged and with an introduction, has been edited by Laurence Fowler. These nature sketches will prove charming reading for advanced students of German (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1899. 157 p. 40 cents).—*Les Gaulois et les Francs*, by F. B. Kirkman and J. M. A. Pécontal, is the first of a series of elementary histories of France, told in easy French and written from the French point of view (London: Adam & Charles Black, 1899. 96 p.).—Victor Hugo's *Scènes de voyage* has been edited, with an introduction, by Thomas Bertrand Bronson, A. M. (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1899. 277 p.).—The Seventh Book of the Odyssey in Dindorp's Greek text has been edited, with introduction and notes, for school use by Charles W. Bain (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1899. School Classics Series. 123 p.).—*The Sir Roger de Coverly papers* have been once more edited, with introduction and notes, by William Henry Hudson. It is in the convenient English Classics Series (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1899. 208 p. 40 cents).—*Black Beauty*, by Anna Sewell, has appeared in the Pathfinder Library (New York: The Mershon Co., 1899. 254 p. 15 cents).—*Don Quixote*, abridged and expurgated for home and school reading, has been edited by Clifton Johnson. The translation is Ormsby's (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1899. 398 p. 75 cents).—*Prinz Friedrich von Hamburg*, a drama, by the Prussian poet, Heinrich von Kleist, has been edited by John Scholte Nollen, with an extremely interesting account of the author's life (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1899. 172 p. 90 cents).—*German sight reading*, by Idelle B. Watson, is a series of selections intended for written class work (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1899. 41 p. 25 cents).—*The development of thrift*, by Mary Willcox Brown, is full of valuable suggestions for those who are engaged in philanthropic work (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1899. 222 p. \$1.00).—*The city wilderness, a settlement study*, is a most interesting account of social conditions in the South end of Boston—"a community of 40,000 souls." It is written by residents and asso-

ciates of the South End House and edited by Robert A. Woods, the head of the house (Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1898. 311 p. \$1.50).—*Le Retraite de Moscou* by Le Comte de Ségur has been abridged, and edited with introduction and notes for the use of students, by O. B. Super (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1899. 135 p. 35 cts.).—*First lessons in linear perspective*, by Frederic R. Honey, is an invaluable book for those who cannot avail themselves of the services of a teacher (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1899. 20 plates).—A delightful book is Edwin M. Bacon's *Historic pilgrimages in New England*. It is a vivid and complete story of Pilgrim and Puritan days and of the events of the Revolution (New York, Boston, Chicago: Silver, Burdette & Co. 120 illustrations, 486 p. \$1.50).—To Mr. Arnold Guyot Cameron, A. M., Ph. D., we are indebted for a book of carefully chosen *Selections from Edmund and Jules de Goncourt*, with introduction, bibliography, and notes (New York, Cincinnati, Chicago: American Book Co. 352 p. \$1.25).—René Doumic's *Contemporary French novelists* has been well translated by Mary D. Frost (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 402 p. Portraits. \$2.00).—Waterman T. Hewett has edited with notes a most successful *German Reader* for students who are not yet able to read the larger classical works. The selections are unusually well-chosen (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1899. 422 p. \$1.00).—A rather technical book, yet one calculated to be of value and interest to the amateur as well as to the student of music, is Albert Lavignac's *Music and musicians*; translated by William Marchant and edited by H. E. Krehbiel (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1899. 504 p. 94 illustrations, 510 examples in musical notation. \$3.00).—An excellent edition of Lessing's *Minna von Barnhelm* has been edited with introduction and notes by A. B. Nichols (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1898. 163 p. 60 cts.).—*Braided straws* is a book of stories for young children, by Elizabeth E. Foulke (New York, Boston, Chicago: Silver, Burdette & Co., 1898. 135 p., illustrated).—*Practical problems in arithmetic for primary grades*, by Anna J. McGrath is a text-book designed to prevent the ex-

clusive use of the blackboard in number work. It can be used in connection with the regular text-book (Detroit, Mich., 1896. 138 p.).—*Notes on Beowulf*, by Thomas Arnold, M. A., places before the reader the present position of continental and British opinion on the leading Beowulf questions (London, New York, and Bombay: Longmans, Green & Co., 1898. 140 p. \$1.00).—A valuable book for teachers and for the home is *Poetry of the seasons*, compiled by Mary I. Lovejoy. The selections are of the best (New York, Boston, Chicago: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1898. 336 p. 60 cts.).—*Le Rôle social de la Femme*, by Mme. Anna Lampérière, is well worth reading and shows much progressive thought (Paris: Félix Alcan, 1898. 174 p. 2 fr. 50 c.).—Page's *Theory and practice of teaching* was a really great book in its day. It brought stimulus and light to many a struggling teacher. The new edition of it, by Mr. Branson of the Georgia State Normal School, makes of the original all that is possible; but there is no disguising the fact that the book is out of date. Education is far less empirical and its literature far less homiletic than was the case fifty years ago, and Page's masterpiece is now only an interesting milestone on the highway of progress (New York: American Book Co., 1899. 382 p. \$1.00).—Mr. Yoxall, one of the royal commissioners on secondary education, has written a little book on *Secondary education*, from which the American reader may gain a clear idea of what troubles the English mind in this respect, and how it is proposed to deal with the questions which have arisen. One cannot help thinking that a more intimate knowledge of American experience would untie a great many English knots (London: A. Brown & Sons, 1898. 140 p. 1 s.).—A new introduction to the calculus reaches us in *Differential and integral calculus*, by Mr. Taylor of University College, Nottingham. It is full and learned (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1899. 568 p. \$3.00).—A new edition of that well-known and popular work, Richter's *Organic chemistry*, translated by Professor Smith of the University of Pennsylvania, has just come from the press (Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Sons & Co., 1899. 625 p. \$3.00).—Dr. Roosa, the distinguished oculist, in

his *Defective eyesight* has prepared a concise and readable account of vision and its chief defects and abnormalities, which teachers and parents will find very helpful (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1899. 194 p. \$1.00).—One may brush up either his French or his knowledge of French history, or he may find a delightful text-book, in *Précis de l'histoire de France*, by Professor Alcée Fortier of Tulane University (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1899. 185 p. 75 cents).—Mrs. Parsons, whose charming book on the wild flowers has had such remarkable success, has just published a companion volume of similar excellence. It is *How to know the ferns*, abundantly illustrated (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1899. 215 p. \$1.00).—Professor Woodberry's delicate and refined literary sense, his master workmanship, and his enthusiasm for a lofty and practical idealism, all show to great advantage in his new volume of essays entitled *The heart of man*. They are genuine literature (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1899. 329 p. \$1.50).—*Froebel's education by development*, translated by Miss Josephine Janis, completes the English version, in the International Education Series, of the original works of Froebel (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1899. 348 p. \$1.50).—A handsomely printed and revised edition of Dr. Hinsdale's *Old Northwest* has just come from the press (New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1899. 430 p. \$2.00).—Ober's *Spain* is a most attractive little volume of history for young readers (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1899. 284 p. 60 cents).

IX

EDITORIAL

Teachers' salaries in New York

Hereafter the city of New York will pay to the teachers employed in its public schools salaries higher than those paid to the teachers in any other city in the country or in the world. This fact is due to the passage of the Ahearn law by the State legislature. The passage of the law in its final form must be credited to the efforts of Governor Roosevelt and Superintendent Maxwell. All parties to the somewhat heated discussions which prepared the way for this legislation conceded that the salaries paid to teachers in the city schools were not sufficient. All the school boards conceded the fact. All the supervising officers conceded it. The teachers themselves proclaimed it loudly. Mayor Strong's board of education had made strenuous efforts to remedy the admitted wrongs of the old salary schedules of New York. The Brooklyn board was similarly engaged prior to consolidation. The boards of the newly formed boroughs of Queens and Richmond had found the regulation of salaries the most perplexing puzzle they had to solve. All these efforts, however, went for naught because the Tammany board of estimate and apportionment refused to appropriate the necessary funds. Last autumn the board of education asked, in round numbers, for twelve millions of dollars for teachers' salaries. The board of estimate and apportionment granted ten millions. Under these circumstances, relief could be obtained only thru an appeal to the Legislature. The appeal was made in the form of a bill introduced by Senator Ahearn, whose energy and disinterestedness in supporting the measure, even when its form was in our view obnoxious, are worthy of high commendation. This bill fixed for women teachers a minimum of \$600 for the first year of service, \$800 for the tenth year, and \$1200 for the fifteenth year; for male teachers, \$2160 after twelve years of service; for female principals,

\$2500, and for male principals, \$3500 after ten years of service. The three chief objections urged against this measure were, first, that, while sufficiently liberal toward the older teachers and principals, it was anything but liberal toward the younger teachers; second, that it provided no means of raising the money necessary to pay the increased salaries during the present year; and, third, and chiefly, that it made increase of salary depend solely on length of service. Few greater misfortunes could have befallen the public schools of New York city than the passage of this law in its original form. In effect the legislature would have said to every teacher: "So long as your work is kept just above the point at which a charge of inefficiency may be maintained, your salary will go on increasing. We have removed all reward for exceptionally good service; we have eliminated all incentive to effort and self-improvement." The result would undoubtedly have been to retard, if not to stop, progress. Notwithstanding the opposition of the Board of Education and of the School Boards of Manhattan and Brooklyn, the Senate passed the bill in its original and most pernicious form. At this juncture Governor Roosevelt intervened and brought the whole proceeding to a halt by declaring that he would not sign any bill which made salaries depend exclusively on length of service. He then called into council Superintendent Maxwell and representatives of the various organizations of teachers. The result of the efforts of the Governor and of Mr. Maxwell was an agreement to amend the bill in such a way as to eliminate the objectionable features. The minimum salary paid to women teachers after ten years of service is to be \$900 instead of \$800; the board of estimate and apportionment is directed to issue revenue bonds in order to provide the money necessary to put the new salary schedule into effect at once; and every increase of salary is to be made only in case the service is declared by a majority of the Borough Board of Superintendents to be "fit and meritorious" "after inspection and investigation."

Among the many public services rendered by Governor Roosevelt, his action with regard to the Ahearn law will take high rank. The enactment of the original Ahearn bill would

have been an immeasurable disaster. To the Governor it is due that salaries commensurate with good service, and sufficient to attract the best teachers in the country to the city of New York, will hereafter be paid; while, if the borough boards of superintendents do their duty, merit will be rewarded and a legitimate incentive to good work will be a constant factor in educational progress.

The responsibility placed on the borough boards of superintendents in the administration of the Ahearn law is very great. It is now in the power of these boards to make the law either a benefit or a disaster to the city. If they report all service, no matter how inefficient, as "fit and meritorious"; or if they allow themselves in any way to be swayed by prejudice in making their decisions, or if they yield to political or other influence; if, in short, they report any service as "fit and meritorious" that is not actually "fit and meritorious"; or if one board is more liberal than another board to the teachers under its jurisdiction; in any of these cases the results will be most disastrous—disastrous not only to the public schools of New York, but disastrous to the cause of professional, as opposed to lay, administration of public schools thruout the country. A betrayal by the several superintendents of the great trust reposed in them would react not only on themselves, but on every superintendent in the country. City Superintendent Maxwell is endeavoring by a series of conferences with the borough and associate superintendents to have the several borough boards reach a common understanding as to how this work is to be performed. One thing is certain: the Ahearn law places on trial before the public the system by which there is a practically independent board of superintendents in each borough.

One other effect of the passage of the Ahearn law remains to be noticed. Various estimates have been made as to the amount by which the general fund—the fund from which teachers' wages are paid—will necessarily be increased, in order to carry out its provisions. These estimates range from a million and a half to two millions and a half of dollars per year. In any case the amount will be very large. The danger, then, is that the board of estimate and apportionment finding itself compelled to increase the teachers' wages fund

to so large an extent, will cut down the appropriations in other directions. In case the passage of this law should lead to the curtailment of the appropriations for building new schoolhouses or for school supplies or for paying the salaries of additional teachers, when they are needed, further legislation may be necessary. It may be necessary then to have recourse to the suggestion made by City Superintendent Maxwell that a special school tax, increasing automatically as the assessed valuation of property increases, shall be levied each year.

**Federation of
Graduate Clubs**

At last, we think, after several crude experiments, the Federation of Graduate Clubs has gotten on the right track in the publication of its *Handbook*. The number lately issued retires from the field of competition with the official and widely distributed university catalogues and devotes almost its entire space to the proceedings of the fourth annual convention of the Federation. The book is correspondingly interesting. The topics discussed are of present importance and of real, not hypothetical value. Many of those whose remarks are reported, however, both professors and graduate students, reveal that very lack of educational scholarship on which we commented last month. They are apt to demand the establishment of the not unusual, and to call for the reform of the almost non-existent. But this is in the nature of the case, and the best remedy for it is just such papers and discussions as these.

The list of those receiving doctors' degrees in 1898, with the titles of dissertations, is an excellent idea, but it ought to be improved upon hereafter in execution. Under the subjects, which should be arranged alphabetically and not haphazard as now, the names of those obtaining degrees should appear, alphabetically grouped, by institutions in alphabetical order. Reference to the list would then be easy. The more usual and better authorized "education" should be substituted for "pedagogy," and the facts as to the printing or non-printing of a given dissertation should be more carefully gone

into. The present *Handbook* contains numerous inaccuracies in this respect. If the dissertation is printed in any established journal or series, that fact should be mentioned.

Notes and News Active preparations are making for the meeting of the American Philological Association at New York University on July 5, 6, and 7 next. Professor Clement L. Smith of Harvard University is this year president of the Association, which meets in New York for the first time in twenty-three years.

The school and college teachers of history in the Middle, Western, and Northwestern States have organized a North Central History Teachers' Association which will hold two meetings each year, one at Chicago and one at a place to be fixed upon from year to year.

In the new edition of Dr. Flavel S. Thomas's book on university degrees which Mr. Bardeen has published, there are some amusing curiosities. The casual reader will find that the mind of the American pedagog has evolved these "degrees," among others: B. B. S., bachelor of business science; B. C., bachelor of commerce; B. E., bachelor of elements; B. E. D., bachelor of elementary didactics; B. O., bachelor of oratory; B. P., bachelor of painting; D. Æ., doctor of æsthetics; I. E., instruction of elocution; Irrg. E., irrigation engineer; L. E. L., laureate in English literature; Ma. E., master of engineering; M. L. E., master or mistress of English literature; M. P. L., master or mistress of polite literature; P. P., principal in pedagogics.

The Tammany school board in New York has been stirred up on the question of appointing married women as teachers, and much buncombe oratory has resulted. This question could not arise at all if the interests of the children to be taught were alone considered, for then the best teachers

would be appointed regardless of whether they are married or single. When it does arise, it is as a corollary of the detestable theory that one purpose of the public schools is to provide young women with "places" in which to earn a livelihood.

Teachers and school officials generally will certainly be interested in the exhibition of appliances for instruction in geography now gathered in the new science building at Springfield, Mass. In collecting and arranging the material for this exhibit, the plan has been to show how the work of various government department publishers and makers of apparatus may be utilized in these studies. With this end in view the material has been classified as under political, commercial, and physical geography. Space has also been given to an extensive series of maps and charts illustrating the work in geology of this and foreign governments. In meteorology much use has been made of the publications of the Weather Bureau. There are charts of special storms and three which show the condition of the Great Lakes, the North Atlantic, and the North Pacific at different seasons. Shore lines and the ocean depths are illustrated by the charts of the Coast and Geodetic Survey, while the atlas sheets of the Geological Survey are grouped according to different types of land forms—mountains, plateaus, plains, and valleys. Examples of glacial action are also exhibited.

In the department of economic geography may be found charts on forestry and the distribution of species of trees in the United States. Monographs on mining districts are also shown. The governments of England, France, and Germany are represented by sheets of the Ordnance Survey and army staff maps. A selected exhibition of work done by the pupils of the Springfield schools in geography illustrates the results obtained in this subject by the best method of instruction. This part of the exhibition has been arranged by grades. Teachers who can should visit this exhibition, for they will find many valuable suggestions for their work in the schoolroom. The exhibition will continue until July 1.

The following educational institutions and libraries have recently become members of the National Educational Association:

Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.; Jacob Tome Institute, Port Deposit, Md.; City Normal School, Dayton, O.; State Normal School, White-Water, Wis.; State Normal and Industrial College, Greensboro, N. C.; University of Texas, Austin, Tex.; University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.; Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.; State Normal School, Fitchburg, Mass.; University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.; Pomona College, Claremont, Cal.; Brigham Young College, Logan, Utah, and the public libraries at Milwaukee, Wis.; Chicago, Ill.; and Omaha, Neb.; the Bryson Library, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York; City Library, Springfield, Mass.; Philomathean Literary Society, State Normal School, Kentstown, Pa.; Athenæum Library, Minneapolis, Minn.; Newberry Library, Chicago, Ill.; State Library, Concord, N. H.; and Central Library, Syracuse, N. Y.

President John W. Cook will carry with him to the new State normal school at De Kalb, Ill., of which he has accepted the presidency, the affectionate good wishes of a host of friends. With a faculty recruited anew from the bottom up, with new and modern equipment, President Cook may fairly be expected to put normal-school education forward no small distance. With President Cook at De Kalb and President Lord at Charleston, Illinois takes a new start.

Some excellent citizens of Holyoke, Mass., are of opinion that the condition of affairs in the educational system of the city, referred to in the REVIEW for May, does not exist. On the other hand, the evidence in our possession seems indubitable. After making additional inquiries we shall return to the subject again in the hope of removing all doubts about the matter and doing full justice to the city of Holyoke.

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

SEPTEMBER, 1899

I

AN EDUCATIONAL POLICY FOR OUR NEW POSSESSIONS ¹

Each nation has had its own policy with regard to the management of new territory acquired by war. The conquests of Persia destroyed the military power of the subdued peoples, but left them their manners and customs, their industries and laws. Even when, as in the case of the Jews, a too stubborn nation was transported to the Euphrates, its essential traditions were not much changed by the Babylonians. But the Persians hastened to send back the captives whom they found weeping by the waters of Babylon, and a new temple was soon built in Jerusalem.

The Greek conquest of Alexander shows the same toleration of religion and of manners of life, altho Greek science and learning took the place of the previous intellectual life throughout eastern Persia and Egypt.

But the Roman conquest meant something far more thorough. The people of Europe, Asia, and Africa who yielded to Roman legions were compelled to change not only their political forms, but their administration of justice; even their religious worship and their family and tribal forms were changed. For their gods were carried off to Rome and placed in the Pantheon to be worshiped henceforth as gods of Rome and no longer as the protectors of their own people. The subjugated people had to send to Rome to make offerings to the gods whom they had looked to for their support, from generation to generation through

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untold ages. The consequence was the necessity of loyalty to Rome on the part of conquered peoples because of the fact that Rome had become the custodian of their gods.

But Rome had another hold upon its new possessions. It conscripted the young men of a province as soon as it had obtained control over it, and sent them into the ranks of the army to fight for Rome. But it did not make the mistake of leaving the conscripts where they could lead a revolt and assist their people to recover their independence. It sent the new conscripts to some far-distant frontier, where their safety depended upon their loyalty to the legion in which they were placed. Only by loyalty to Rome could they expect ever to see again or even to hear from their dear ones in the family left behind in the native land. Thus young men from Gaul and Britain, from Spain and Germany, were sent to the frontiers of Egypt and Greece, Parthia and the Nabathean wilderness to serve in the armies of Rome; while, on the other hand, the young men of the East were sent to the West to hold in subjection the peoples of Spain, Britain, Gaul, and the Rhine.

This was an education in cosmopolitanism—the mixing up of nations by means of the Roman army.

But Rome had still another and a more important education for its new possessions. It set up everywhere its prætorian courts, and in the place of violence or mere princely authority brought forward principles of jurisprudence openly promulgated before all men. There was the Roman advocate who would take advantage of all the subtleties of the law to get for his client a favorable verdict. The prætor had in the main to decide in such a way as to secure justice. The civil law got established by countless prætorian decisions and has become the priceless possession of all modern civilization. The nations conquered by Rome, and held for one or two centuries, learned to live under Roman laws and could never after rid themselves of that necessity.

The Roman taught each individual of its world empire a twofold consciousness, first, that of his right to the acquirement of private property in land, and his right of protection by

the courts in his property and in his person against violence; secondly, that of his duties as citizen to support the state by risk of his life and property.

This was a training in individualism, and at the same time in citizenship, so that Rome may be said to have made individuals into persons in a way that had never before been known.

Charlemagne finished the work of Julius Cæsar in the conquest of the Teutonic tribes, by a thirty-years' war with the Saxons. The states of modern Europe are governed substantially by Roman law, but they do not adopt without important modifications the Roman policy with their new possessions. To be sure they all seek to obtain a revenue by taxation or otherwise from the conquered province, and this is right so far as it goes to pay the expenses of a just government and for institutions established for the enlightenment of the people. New possessions in farther Asia, central and southern Africa, or in the islands of the Pacific are also initiated into the Roman jurisprudence in its latest development. More than this, they are made acquainted with the arts and inventions for use, comfort, and luxury, and with science to a greater or less degree. In fact, up to a certain limit there is an altruistic attempt to lift the people that do not possess the arts of life into civilization, at least so far as the conquest of nature for food, clothing, and shelter is concerned. And the missionary movement of the Christian Church is unremitting in its purpose to enlighten those people in the matter of the divine destiny open to all men to whom is revealed the doctrine of the divine-human nature of God.

To the United States, as a nation proclaiming freedom and equality to all men, one looks for a new step in the general direction taken by civilized Europe with its conquests. One expects more altruism, more government of the people for the benefit of the people.

It is a strong presentiment of this that has led to the party of opposition, which declaims against imperialism and sees no just road to the acquisition and government of territory that is not inhabited by people that have reached the stage of self-government, and capable of becoming independent States in

our Union. Notwithstanding a quite general adherence of our people to the principles enunciated in the Declaration of Independence, there is almost an equal distrust in the practice of admitting into the Union any people who are not fully ripe for self-government. This means that they shall have arrived at a sense of fair play and tolerance for those who differ in opinion and, besides this, a ready submission to those legally in authority. It means, moreover, that there shall prevail among the people of the new possessions a conviction that leads to productive industry and to the creation of an enlightened public opinion. Would any of our cities allow its slums to vote and thereby lower the standard of righteousness in the community, if it were not for the fact that it is believed that the privilege of voting is in itself an educative force in the state and that it constantly increases the self-respect of the voter? It is feared by the opposition that the restriction of the right to vote will end by creating a social barrier obstructive to the development of humanity. It has seemed, therefore, to be a new departure for the United States to acquire colonies that must not be admitted to federal representation. It must involve an imperialistic relation to a portion of our people, and this will gradually react on our form of government and in the end deprive us of cherished privileges, it is said.

We see, however, that expansion is unavoidable in some form. The great powers of Europe have divided Africa among themselves. They have moved upon Asia until it seems only a question of months when China, the greatest aggregate of people with an indigenous government that has ever existed, will be partitioned. There is no territory of uncivilized people that will remain long out of the possession of those great powers. Nor is there a long future for any of the decaying political powers wherever they may exist. This fact causes every thoughtful American to look seriously to the question whether it is not a duty devolving upon us as a people to have our hand in this work of division and show that we can hold conquered nations for their own benefit—that we, in short, can lift them toward self-government.

Other nations—notably Germany, Austria, Russia, and

France—will teach their colonists to be industrious and to adopt civilized habits in the matter of food, clothing, and shelter. Great Britain will go farther and establish universities in India and even in Africa, so as to permit exceptional individuals to reach great careers, but the United States will put before the whole people the opportunity of schooling. It will give whole nations an apprenticeship in an industrial civilization. Is not this better than to draw a Chinese wall around our present territory and make no new acquisitions on account of the danger of diluting our already thin national blood? Let us have an apprenticeship for all people within our nation in the art of local self-government. In this, then, is hope not only for peoples on a lower stage of self-government, but also for ourselves. For if the other people of the world, to the number of some fourteen hundred millions, are united under the five great powers of Europe, while we in turn have only one hundred millions, our national idea will be threatened abroad and have more dangers than ever at home.

And, again, it is absurd to suppose that if our democratic government of the people comes to have under its protection people who are not equal to the task of self-government that it will be necessary for us to tyrannize over them and enrich ourselves on their substance, cruelly neglectful of their best interests. We must accept the charge of as many of these colonies as come to our hand. We must seek to give them civilization in the highest sense that we can conceive it.

Meanwhile, what is civilization? And who are we that feel so satisfied with our own form of living that we dare to wish it imposed on other people?

What right, it is asked, has one nation to impose its forms on another by force, on the ground that it is a higher form of civilization? What infallible criterion have we, asks another, by which we may be entitled to conclude that we have a higher civilization than the neighboring nations? Why is not the Indian civilization as good as ours? Why is not the Chinese civilization or the civilization of the Philippine Islands as good as the civilization that calls itself the United States, or Great Britain, or France, or Germany? This is a serious question

and needs to be understood if one is going to sit in judgment upon national achievements.

Let us consider the answer which can be made to the question, what is it that makes one civilization higher than another? What is a high civilization and what is the highest civilization?

Let us pause and consider a definition of civilization. For we must have such a definition that its bare statement will lead to its instant adoption. It must be clear on the face of it. Such a definition, too, cannot fail to help us as to the kind of education which we must give to the people of our new possessions if we accept the responsibility.

I offer as such a definition the following:

A people is civilized when it has formed institutions for itself which enable each individual to profit by the industry of all his fellow-citizens; when it enables each individual to profit by the experience and wisdom, the observations and the thoughts of his fellow-citizens; when it encourages each individual to enter upon a rational self-activity by which he contributes either thru his industry, or thru his observation and his thoughts, to the benefit of the people with whom he lives.

This, too, will apply not only to the highest forms, but it will indicate the degree of advancement all along the line from the lowest grade to the highest. If one nation allows one-half of its citizens to grow up illiterate and in consequence not able to profit, thru means of books, by the experience of the race, nor enter into the thoughts of their fellow-citizens, that nation is surely inferior to another that gives these privileges to three-fourths of its people. So, too, a nation that can earn only twenty cents per day for each inhabitant is inferior by so much in its civilization to the nation that can earn thirty, or forty, or fifty cents a day for each.

But this definition can be stated in a more technical manner to bring out all that it contains.

Civilization enables man to conquer nature and make it his servant; to command the services of heat, light, electricity, and of all the inorganic elements; to command the plant world or vegetation for his uses; to command also the animal king-

dom for the same service; in short, to command the services of nature for food, clothing, and shelter. Besides this control over nature, civilization should give man access to the history of his race, access to its literature, access to its scientific discoveries, access to its various inventions, and, above all, access to its moral and religious ideals. Civilization, in short, should give man command of the earth and likewise command of the experience of the entire race.

This shows the goal ahead of us and not merely our partial realizations.

In the light of this definition we may approach the civilizations as they actually exist and inquire how far they have realized the ideal, how high they have climbed on the ladder of civilization. At once we see how low the tribal civilization is as compared with the civilization of Great Britain or France or Germany. There is no tribal civilization on the face of the earth and never was one which could compare with these nations in its knowledge of the uses of minerals, chemical substances, and the natural forces such as heat, light, electricity, gravitation. No tribe can possibly command the complete resources of the world as regards its vegetable and its animal life, the products of agriculture, and the mines. The reason for this is that the tribe is too small, and the tribe from the very nature of its constitution cannot co-operate with other tribes or receive their help. It stops at a view of nature which is a mere superstition. The tribe can climb only a little way up the ladder which leads to the control and command of all the substances and forces of nature. Consequently, the tribe cannot participate to any great degree either in the productive industry of the whole world or in its intellectual investigations and discoveries.

Other forms of civilization above the tribe take rank as higher or lower according to the degree in which they realize this ideal of conquest over nature and complete intercommunication with the rest of the world. No nation that lacks a great commerce can be so high in civilization as Great Britain or France. No nation that lacks railroad communication can be so high in civilization as the United States. No nation that

lacks steam engines to perform its drudgery can be so high as the nation which has these things.

Hence it is obvious that we and all other nations were a century ago far below what we are now on the material side of our civilization, and if we are no worse off than then in the matter of spiritual communion with our fellow-men, then we are higher in our civilization as a whole.

A nation that has no printing presses and that cannot buy or read the books of the world cannot be said to have a high civilization. And on this scale the nation that has the most printing, that makes the most books, and that reads the great books of the world, is higher than the other nations. The ideal in this respect is that civilization should make it possible for each man to know the experience of all the past thru science and literature, and that he should be able to see, thru the columns of a morning newspaper, history as it is making day by day in all the lands of the world.

It is a surprise to us all to consider the enormous advance made in a hundred years in this matter of knowing what all humanity is doing. We could know, in 1799, much of the great world history before it was a half a year old, but not nearly so much as we can now know within six hours.

There is another criterion by which to try a civilization, and it is a very important one. A nation may be very far advanced in its ability to control nature and to command access to the wisdom of the race. But it may do this only for some classes of its citizens and not for all. Such a nation is not so highly advanced in its civilization as one that allows each of its citizens to participate in the product of the whole. The nation that gives schools to the humblest classes of its people as well as to its highest classes, and the nation which allows the humblest people to govern themselves under just laws, is a higher nation than one which separates the ruling class into a government apart from and above the mass of the people.

The highest ideal of a civilization is that of a civilization which is engaged constantly in elevating lower classes of people into participation of all that is good and reasonable, and perpetually increasing at the same time their self-activity.

Pursuing this same line of thought, we must note that with the increase of individual self-activity along the lines of science and productive industry there is an increase of creature comforts to each and every inhabitant, as well as increase of his ability to enjoy spiritual intercommunication by means of books, magazines, and newspapers.

I am aware that many persons think that an industrial civilization devoted to money-getting and the accumulation of capital is a spurious civilization, and that it is a lower stage of human society than the tribal stage and the village community. This is the reason why I am explicit on this point of the importance of man's conquest of nature. For without this machinery for the creation of wealth, and without the combination of individual savings into vast masses of capital, there would not exist as there does now a bond of commerce extending around the world and uniting all peoples. For this material bond must exist before the spiritual interaction can exist which makes each nation participant in the experience of all others.

When we look at the accumulation of wealth and the combinations of capital we must see how essential they are to the conquest of nature. The inventions of any one people are converted by means of commerce into an active help to all other peoples. The ships of the commercial marine of Great Britain help to cheapen the cost of the productions of all nations to each consumer.

The capitalist who invests ten millions of dollars in tenement houses in any city helps all of the citizens of that place to obtain better dwellings at cheaper rents. The capitalists who build railroads lower the prices of freight and in doing this add something to the wealth of the distant producer as well as cheapen the cost to the consumer.

The amount of money earned on an average to each inhabitant of a state measures its rank of civilization so far as the conquest of nature is concerned. A nation that does not use machinery and steam engines cannot afford for all its people a full participation in the world's market. A nation like the English, that commands the most machinery, will command

the most comfort for its people. Thirty families out of a hundred in Great Britain report an income of one thousand dollars and upward, while only three families in Italy out of each hundred report the same amount of income.

Side by side with the conquest of nature, as we have seen, develop the two classes of knowledge, the knowledge of nature and the knowledge of man. The mining for silver and iron and the other metals is not the only kind of mining. Civilized man is mining continually into the history of peoples, excavating buried cities and exploring their monuments and the remains of their literature, and trying to discover what motives governed the civilizations of the Nile valley and the Euphrates and learn what was the nature of the institutions with which the peoples of the past governed themselves. The spiritual method of mining brings up to light human life as it was in the past, and more and more every day we come to understand how civilization has been evolved out of savagery. We can understand better and better what is our real status in our progressive development toward the ideal of civilization. And we can understand better and better our shortcomings. We can see the ideal far above us and beyond us.

If we cannot come into contact with lower civilizations without bringing extermination to their people, we are still far from the goal. It must be our great object to improve our institutions until we can bring blessings to lower peoples and set them on a road to rapid progress. We must take in hand their education. We must emancipate them from tribal forms and usages and train them into productive industry and the individual ownership of land. We must take them out of the form of civilization that rests on tradition and mere external authority and substitute for it a civilization of the printed page, which governs by public opinion and by insight rather than by mere authority. Such a civilization we have a right to enforce on this earth. We have a right to work for the enlightenment of all peoples and to give our aid to lift them into local self-government. But local self-government cannot exist where there is no basis of productive industry and book-learning.

Here we have the answer to our question: What is the right one civilization has to substitute itself in the place of another form of civilization already existing?

We have read with great interest the new and higher definition of the white man's burden as stated by the greatest of living poets. The white man proves his civilization to be superior to other civilizations just by this very influence which he exercises over the peoples that have lower forms of civilization, forms that do not permit them to conquer nature and make the elements into ministers of human power—forms of civilization which do not sum up for each individual the ideas of all mankind thru all ages, but rather which limit him exclusively to the experience of his own tribe and which fail to give him an understanding even of that.

Let us suppose that, in particular, we the people of the United States agree that it is our burden to take up the education of the people in our new possessions. We shall also agree that there are two lines of education, one in productive industry and one in letters and science. Our definition makes it clear that the school is to be a great feature in the government of the new possessions. All the inhabitants must be educated and not the few alone. There must be opportunity for all not only to learn letters in school, but also to learn the trades and commerce and agriculture. That education should be such as to enable the inhabitants to develop to the full the resources of their islands.

So much being settled in advance, we may now make a few specific inquiries as to the first step to be taken. In all these new possessions there have existed school systems, or at least the rudiments of such. That of the Hawaiian Islands has been so wisely and efficiently organized that it needs no help from the outside, and I do not speak of it in what follows.

It seems to me that there are three simple steps in the inauguration of an educational scheme for Cuba and Porto Rico.

First, I take for granted that the government will leave the management of the islands for several months or even years in the hands of military commanders who will govern thru

provost-marshals assigned to districts—these being instructed to take all proper steps to interest substantial citizens, citizens possessing educated intelligence or successful in the management of property, to come forward and assist in restoring social order and in re-establishing schools and business in the proper channels. By a gentle pressure on the part of these provost-marshals old schools could be re-established and, perhaps, new ones opened. It is important that the United States government should do something as soon as these schools have been re-opened; namely, it should furnish supervisors to visit these schools and suggest improved methods of instruction, giving the teachers of these new possessions the benefit of the experience in the United States that has accumulated during the many generations that our common-school system has been in operation. The supervisors should consist of one general superintendent of schools and a sufficient number of assistants to make possible a weekly visit to each of the schools on the island.

In the next place something should be done with regard to the instruction of the natives in the English language. Great care should be taken not to attempt too much. If the United States government should employ teachers of English (and these must all be acquainted with the Spanish language) to make weekly visits to the several schools and give model lessons in instruction in English, and direct the instruction in this branch, one lesson a day being required in each of the schools, the native teachers would soon become good instructors in this branch, and the English language would very soon come to be taught in an effective manner, and this with a minimum of outlay from the public funds.

After the military rule, of course civil rule must come. Indeed, it should be the policy of the government to make the military rule a system of nurture to develop civil rule and self-government, on the part of the people of these possessions. While the military rule lasts it will give opportunity for the national government at Washington to become acquainted with the peculiarities of these islanders, to learn their strong points and their weak points, and, so to speak, acquire a fund

of experience necessary for the formation of proper civil codes and the organization of a system of government for them.

It is evident that the first step on the road to prosperity must be the re-establishment of the various industries and civil vocations of the people. The establishment of schools should proceed step by step with this settlement of civil and industrial vocations, so that the youth growing up may understand the rationale of the things that they practice. When they grow to manhood and womanhood they will be qualified to enter into a new order of citizenship which our national government will hope to encourage and succeed in bringing to a vigorous maturity in these islands.

To summarize these outlines of an educational policy for our new possessions: they involve, first, the action of provost-marsals under the direction of the generals commanding these islands to re-establish in their old channels the industries and the educational institutions; second, the appointment of expert supervisors to inspect the schools and train the teachers in the most advanced methods of instruction; third, the appointment of Spanish-English teachers who are able to lay out a course of instruction in English and introduce it into the programs of the schools so as to have in all cases one lesson a day in English, and to supervise the teaching of this work as performed by the regular teacher of the school. Under this arrangement both teachers and pupils will very soon attain a considerable familiarity with English.

It is all-important that only one lesson per day should be given in English. More than this would be liable to the suspicion that we desired to substitute English for Spanish in our new possessions, and such suspicion would embarrass and even render futile all our efforts at improving their schools.

The experience in Porto Rico since January of the present year has been very nearly on these lines and has met with success. General John Eaton, my eminent predecessor in the Bureau of Education, has been the chief executive officer in the educational department of Porto Rico, and has latterly had one assistant. The able general in command of the department (General Henry) supported his policy and made it possi-

ble not only to revive and continue the schools of the island, but also to establish new ones. No adequate provision has been made for many years in that island to pay the teachers' salaries, and this was one of the first evils that met a remedy. The revenues of the island collected by the United States are to support the teachers and the supervisors. But one assistant superintendent is not enough. There should be a corps of assistants sufficiently large to visit each of the schools weekly.

Besides the literary work there should be, as I have suggested, schools of industry with special teachers in every considerable town and village. The general manual training school as it exists with us would do good work there, but I think that special trades schools are better. They should fit all who desire instruction for their special vocations.

In conclusion, I refer once more to my extended discussion of the new duties which devolve on our nation at this epoch—when it becomes responsible for new territories whose people have been brought up under older forms of civilization. It is our duty to make a system of education that will develop in their people an ability to conquer nature and to enter into an all-sided spiritual communion with mankind.

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II

THE CHICAGO SCHOOL SITUATION

The Chicago school situation is not described by merely indicating the shifting from position of this or that individual, or the scheming of this or that politician. It is a profound and complex situation, created by the aggressive working and interworking of the great forces which mark the end of the nineteenth, and which are preparing the way for the twentieth century. Men and women enter into this drama in so far as they succeed or fail in grasping these master forces and observing their governing influence upon the movements of our time. The field of education is permeated by these influences. No one can understand the educational situation without taking into consideration the great problems which are pressing upon humanity from every direction. All these questions concern one human kind. They are not detachable. They cannot be partitioned off into this or that space for consideration. If our age has learned one lesson, it is that of the unity which underlies all development. Let me be distinctly understood. The Chicago situation is not summed up in a discussion of surface questions. It involves deeper questions. These surface phenomena are merely symptoms. In this deeper consideration we find teachers and citizens interested. But bear this in mind: This is an age of smokeless powder. In the field of social development, as on the field of battle, it is not always easy to locate the forces.

The most significant fact in the development of our country for the past fifty years is the rapid growth of the public-school system into a position commanding respect and confidence. Analyzing the feelings which go out to it, we can easily discover that it is loved not only for what it has done and is doing, but also (and this must be emphasized) on account of what it may realize in the development of society. Our age presents

the phenomena of a transition period. Unrest and discontent prevail. Institutions must be remodeled according to new and higher standards. A multitude of hopes and expectations are centered upon the schools. They, it is felt, can be made the instruments thru which man and society can be reconstructed. Like a great impulse going out in every direction appears the democratizing tendency of our day. The very atmosphere is surcharged with the ozone of democracy. The cry is for opportunity for all, and that opportunity the highest and the best. A great hope has welled up in the human soul, that it shall at last have a chance for full and free development. Democracy sees its opportunity in the public school. Citizens and teachers are energized by its influence.

The great heart of the nineteenth century, acutely responsive to every suggestion for humanity's help, throbs in unison with the hopes of its greatest teachers. Even the defectives have been taken up in the arms of the age. The philosopher and the psychologist have placed the child in a new light, and have questioned the school work of the day. The sociologist and the specialist in education, active in the laboratories of human life, have asked that the school prepare for social life, and have suggested that radical changes in the school curriculum would be required to accomplish this. The student of economic and industrial conditions has turned with hopeful countenance to the public school. The teacher of morality has been profoundly stirred by its possibilities. The whole community has felt the force of the new impulse, and greater and greater demands are made upon the public school. The business world, the industrial world, the professional world voice these demands. These bodies are too much occupied with their own affairs, they are too busy to look much beneath the surface, but in a sort of groping, incoherent fashion they voice their discontent. Suggestions of administrative or legislative reform seem to attract them and to offer solutions. The newspapers reflect this sort of sentiment, and blindly hack away at this or that head which presents itself, in many cases, perhaps, honestly believing that they are helping along the cause of progress. They seize upon the sensational features of the surface

phenomena, and retail these to their readers as news from the educational world. The club women often seem to strike a deeper chord. The impulses of democracy have brought them in touch with the great heart of the age. They have felt the power of the forces of the day, they have endeavored to acquaint themselves with conditions as they exist.

The teachers feel the pressure of the new forces in double measure. As citizens they are carried on the great ocean waves of impulse about them. As workers in their own special field there are brought home to them in a most acute form the symptoms of the situation, and while democracy and the new forces are manifesting themselves thru other channels, they present themselves in a most interesting and well-defined manner in the teachers' corps. When George Howland left the superintendency of the Chicago schools, the ferment was already on. In his last report to the Chicago Board of Education, made in 1891, he took the opportunity to review the work of the schools and the standing of the teacher's profession. He showed the tremendous advance which had been made, and contrasted the teacher of the day with the teacher of the recent past. Howland knew that the whole situation depends upon the teacher. And this leads me to present Chicago's history in the matter of preparing teachers for their work.

In 1877 the normal department of the high school, which had been in operation since 1856, was closed. Superintendents Doty and Howland both advocated the establishment of a normal school, but their counsel was not heeded. For many years any person, regardless of qualifications, was admitted to the examination for teachers, and passing the examination was the passport to a position. There was strenuous opposition to the establishment of a training school. It was held that it was absurd to talk about the profession of teaching, —that one might talk about the profession of law or of medicine, because in preparing one's self for those professions one had to study certain things about which other persons knew nothing; but had not all handled the spelling-book, and could not all read and write and figure, and why should not anyone teach those things which he had been over himself? Doty and

Howland spoke to deaf ears. In 1893, after the city of Chicago had been without a training school for a period of sixteen years, Superintendent Lane was permitted to start a training class with a five months' term for high-school graduates. In 1895 this term was extended to one year. In January, 1896, just when a few courageous souls were suggesting that Chicago ought to have a great normal school, the events occurred which resulted in making the Cook county normal school the Chicago city normal school.

The Cook county normal school had gained a national, yes, even an international reputation. For many years its staff of instructors, under the leadership of Colonel Francis W. Parker, had been at work, developing methods for the training of teachers and for the education of the child. By securing this school, the city of Chicago took a great step forward. It was now determined that only such students as had finished the course in the normal school, and under the eyes of experienced teachers had demonstrated fitness for the work, should be granted certificates of graduation. In the spring of 1897 the plans of the faculty of the school and the committee of the board of education were made known to the students, and thru them became public property. Now there was trouble. It was demanded that all the students in the class should be graduated. Had they not finished a course in the high school? Had they not been admitted into the normal school? Had they not been there a year? And after all this time devoted to attending school, was it, it was asked, was it seriously proposed to bar some of them from teaching in the schools? Why, it must be a joke! But as it was learned that the action was proposed in seriousness, the alarm was sounded. It was useless to suggest that the plans of the committee had been carefully considered, that they were acting for the best interests of the students and the children, that if there were any in the school who were absolutely unfitted for teaching, it was kindness to save them from failure, and that if there were any who might gain power from a further stay in the school they should be required to remain. It was argued that here was another effort to place more difficulties in the way of those

who wanted to be teachers. Men even stood up in their pulpits and denounced Colonel Parker and his faculty as being prejudiced in their actions. The agitation had shaken the city from one end to the other.

In April, 1897, near the close of this first year of the normal school, and right in the heat of the agitation which has been described, Carter H. Harrison was elected mayor of Chicago. Events showed that the mayor had been influenced to make certain pledges inimical to the continuance of Parker and his policy at the city normal school. As his corporation counsel he appointed Charles S. Thornton, who had opposed Colonel Parker on the county board and on the city board of education. He had been very active in the election of Mayor Harrison, and was in a position to ask favors. Moreover, the city's executive was advised that Mr. Lane and Colonel Parker were active Republicans, and that the positions held by them were worth thousands of votes to their party. He was told that the possession of these offices would benefit his own party, or, at the very least, that the men who were in these positions ought to be removed and individuals of a more neutral character be put into them. It was determined that the membership of the board of education must be reconstituted; so, in July, 1897, not a single one of the then outgoing members was reappointed, but instead thereof, seven new members were selected. It was hoped that enough of the old members would be whipped into line to organize the board, but in this the administration failed. During the year 1897-98 rumors came thick and fast. It was said that the mayor would remove a number of members from the board, a power which had never been exercised within the history of the city. This threat was not carried out.

As the end of the school year came, a fight was made on the re-election of Superintendent Lane and Colonel Parker. Influential forces in the city came to the support of the latter, and he was re-elected. The strongest force on his side was the united Turn-Vereine of the city. Again, as in the days of the anti-slavery conflict, again as in the days of the war, when it was their influence which held the border States on

the Northern side, again they had demonstrated that they were ready to throw their influence on the side of progress. The victory of Parker was the triumph of democracy.

In June, 1899, Parker resigned his position as principal of the Normal School to accept the presidency of the Teachers College, an institution liberally endowed by Mrs. Emmons Blaine, and which will afford fine opportunities for experimentation in the educational field. A few weeks after he resigned the board of education, by an almost unanimous vote, made the period of training at the normal school two years instead of one, and established a physical test as a prerequisite for admission. The pressure of the underlying forces at work may be realized by considering the rapid advance made from 1893, when Superintendent Lane was permitted to start a five months' term for a training class, to 1899, when the course at the normal school was made two years.

It was not alone in the matter of securing larger opportunities for the training of teachers that the influences for progress made themselves felt. The educationists, the practical educators, the sociologists, the economists had been at work. They were demanding that the work of the school should be related to the real life of the community. It was even laid down that the school *is* life. The whole educational world was profoundly stirred. The enthusiasm of the great leaders overflowed upon the whole profession. Many were touched by the new developments. The World's Fair was a great stimulus to the intellectual life of Chicago. Almost contemporaneously the influences of the University made themselves felt. The great body of the teachers of Chicago eagerly seized upon the opportunities presented by the extension classes of the university. The reports of the Committee of Ten and the Committee of Fifteen gave ample food for discussion, and courses of study were modified to conform to the new suggestions. Educational conventions spread the new thought. A new and great educational literature aided in this work. Institutes were held and attended by three thousand or more of the teachers, at

which the leading educators of the country gave out their best thought. These educators themselves declared that such gatherings and such interest as was shown were without precedent in any other city of the country. Results followed rapidly. Democracy and its ideals had taken hold of the students in the great army of Chicago's teachers. Emphasis was laid upon the study of the individual child.

Democracy has given the age in which we live its great overflowing heart. In the realm of education this tends to take in and give opportunity to the humblest child—the humblest not only so far as material considerations are concerned, but the humblest so far as mental equipment is concerned. The age refuses to give up any child, but catches the least glimmer of possibility that may exist in its mental and moral structure, with the hope of fanning this glimmer into an intelligent light. The age is anxious to do the best it can for all. The teacher in the school catches the spirit of the age, and is studying how to do the best for each individual child. The working out of this problem has led the teacher to study his own capacity and equipment, and thus the study of the child has led to the self-study of the teacher. To-day he is filled with the idea of equipping himself, of developing his own powers for the benefit of the child.

The study of the individual child and the effort to relate the school to life compelled the teacher to look closely into the work of the school. It was evident that it needed reconstruction. Manual training, the household arts, creative constructive work, the kindergarten—all these things enlisted the energies and interest of the teaching force. The idea grew that the school should prepare for citizenship, and various plans of self-government for pupils were introduced. The hygienic surroundings of the child, its physical condition, its home were subjects of study. Moreover, the home was leaning more and more upon the school, opening up problems for the student of the coming day. In short, the demands of the age have made of the teacher of to-day a personality entirely different from the teacher of yesterday.

This life and movement in the Chicago teaching corps led

straight to some very interesting results. The forces of democracy were still at work. The educational leaders were piling constant emphasis, and rightly so, upon the work of the individual teacher. The age was making greater and greater demands upon him. Time was when the teacher was expected simply to teach the three R's. Now he is expected to take charge of the education of the child. Democracy said to the teacher: "You are not simply an employee, hired to do this or that thing. The work which you have assumed implies a function, and you must live up to the full stature of that function. Your office has been magnified until there rests upon you a great personal responsibility. You, grade teacher, are doing a most important work in the community. It is high time that your labors, multiplied by the increasing demands upon you, be recognized." With the consciousness of filling an important place in the community, there came also the recognition of the closer relation existing between those engaged in this work. It is this new professional spirit which must be recognized as an important element in the teacher of to-day. Without this recognition we can hardly understand many of the phenomena which present themselves. It is this sense of professional dignity, still new to the community, which makes our teachers so sensitive to indiscriminate criticism. It is the realization of the common and overwhelming difficulties with which their profession has to contend which makes them stand together for their common interests. Resulting directly from the conditions above indicated, there has been demonstrated during the past few years a passion for organization, ramifying in every direction. The Ella F. Young Club, an organization of women principals; the George Howland Club, an organization of men principals and teachers; the Teachers' Club, the Horace Mann Club, taking in the men teachers in the grades; the High School Teachers' Club; the Octavius Club, organized for eighth-grade teachers; the Manual Training Club, the Kindergarten Club, the Household Arts Club, the Institute of Education, the Grade Teachers' Federation, the Council System, are the prominent teachers' societies.

For a number of years past the writer has been a close stu-

dent of the forces at work in the Chicago schools. In an address on "Reform in school administration," delivered in 1897 at the Milwaukee meeting of the National Educational Association, he ventured to point out a form of organization which would meet the situation. The forces of the new day had done their work. It was becoming more and more apparent that the teachers, conscious of their responsibilities, were looking for an avenue thru which they could give expression to their opinions and exert their influence. Both principals and teachers felt they should have a larger voice in regard to the course of study, text-books, and similar matters. The plan proposed aimed to reconcile and harmonize the great contending forces of organization and democracy in the administration of a school system. It gave a voice, and an opportunity for that voice to be heard, to every teacher. In the address referred to the proposition that the organization of a school system should be like that of an army was opposed, and the distinction was pointed out. The plan suggested is embodied in the Council System at present existing and voluntarily established by the teaching corps of Chicago. The school, district, and central councils have been a tremendous factor in developing the best educational spirit in the teaching force. Only one link is lacking to make this Council System a complete success, and that is its recognition by the superintendent and Board of Education as the proper agency thru which they may obtain an expression of opinion on some particular educational or other question relating to school work. In the adoption of some such plan lies the only hope for the harmonious working together of the great forces engaged in such a school system as that of Chicago. The great superintendent will be he who will recognize the influences of democracy and give to organization its proper place.

During the period of development which has been described, Albert G. Lane was superintendent of schools. He was a child of the public school. From 1846 to 1858 he had been a pupil in the schools. From 1858 to 1869 he was a principal. For eighteen years he had been superintendent of the schools of Cook county, in which county Chicago is situated, and had

been active in their development. No one had ever questioned Mr. Lane's devotion to the cause of the public school. His knowledge of the details of public-school work was great. If Mr. Lane had any deficiencies, no one knew those deficiencies better than he. When he hesitated to accept the position of city superintendent it was because he was doubtful whether he had the preparation to undertake that work. When he finally accepted he resolved that if loyalty to the cause and a life knowledge of the work could make up for deficiencies, he would fill the place to the best of his ability. In many ways Mr. Lane was a self-educated man. He had been denied the opportunities of a college or university training, but he possessed a mind capable of growth and development, and his close attention to the problems of public-school work had made him an expert in this particular department. For eighteen years he had been in a position which had practically made him an autocrat, and yet when he became city superintendent of schools he seemed to think it necessary to hold himself in, not to assert his personality. This created the impression that he was not possessed of the qualities of leadership. He allowed large liberty to those around him. If he did not lead, he never obstructed the march of progress. His friends asserted that a man of aggressive disposition would be speedily ousted, and that Mr. Lane, by his attitude, kept the contending forces balanced, and in that way conserved the best interests of the schools. In 1898, when Mr. Lane was succeeded by Dr. Andrews, it was pointed out, and with truth, that the Chicago schools had made great progress under Mr. Lane's superintendency. During his entire administration the new forces were aggressively at work, pushing themselves to the front for recognition, and under the liberty permitted by him there was sufficient opportunity for their free development. In some quarters, however, there seemed to be a feeling that the situation demanded of the superintendent of schools an equipment in certain directions, of which Mr. Lane had not had opportunities to possess himself. Whether anyone can arise, who from a general, all-around point of view, can fill the place better than Mr. Lane, history alone can tell.

In 1898 Mayor Harrison and a board of education in harmony with him deposed Mr. Lane from his position, and Dr. E. Benjamin Andrews was elected superintendent. Mr. Lane's ability was conceded by his retention in the position of district superintendent. The great heart of Chicago met Dr. Andrews with most joyous expectations. True, it was said that a man of his reputation had been selected merely because it was desired to counteract the bad feeling created by the removal of Mr. Lane, but he was welcomed, nevertheless. A man whom the experiences of a long and useful life had crowned with the diadem which belongs to him who devotes himself to education, it was hoped that he would prove the man for the hour. The very suggestion of a man of Dr. Andrews' repute and varied scholarship is an admission of the fact of the supreme importance of the position to which he was called. It was a concession that the questions to be taken hold of by him were not superficial, but that they called for study and deep experience.

In his address, "The public school as an instrumentality in social advance," delivered in various parts of the country, Dr. Andrews had pictured an ideal of the public school and its work which enlisted the interest of its friends. When he left the presidency of Brown University to accept the position of superintendent of the Chicago schools, it seemed that he would try to realize the ideal which he had held up for contemplation. Dr. Andrews began his work, and within a short time the very persons who had elected him were planning how to get rid of him. He was not pliant enough for the members of the board. The whole situation in which he found himself has been a most trying one for all concerned. Dr. Andrews was not practically acquainted with the public schools, nor had he any knowledge of the forces at work. It was to him a new and strange situation. He was aware of the circumstances under which he had come. He knew that the persons bringing him were not friends from conviction. He knew not whither to turn. He tried as best he could to meet this or that situation. He made mistakes. He ran his head against influences of which he was ignorant. Abuse and criticism came

thick and fast. At the close of the year it seemed as tho press, people, and teachers had united to drive him out. The board, angered by his stand on many questions, were ready to dismiss him. Only one force stood in the way. That was the mayor. He said the word, and Dr. Andrews remained. It is to be hoped that Dr. Andrews will be given full opportunity for developing his plans during the coming year. A study of the forces at work in the schools and in the community will aid him in his labors.

Nothing could have brought out in a more powerful way the manner in which democracy with its ideals is influencing the Chicago teaching force than the agitation which has been going on during the past year with reference to the suggestions of the Educational Commission, the bill proposed by it for legislative action, and other propositions. In 1896 Mayor Swift filled a vacancy on the Board of Education by the appointment of Dr. William R. Harper, President of the University of Chicago. Dr. Harper took this position against the advice of some of his best friends, and as it afterward turned out, their opinion was the correct one. Dr. Harper was entirely unacquainted with public schools, or with the work of the teachers. He was, therefore, in no position to give them any real help in their problems. His work had led him into other lines of teaching, and it seemed difficult for him to place himself in sympathy with them. This led him occasionally into situations which made him misunderstood. The reforms required in the school work could only be accomplished by one knowing the conditions, and aggressively pushing for change. Dr. Harper did not place himself in any aggressive attitude, perhaps because he did not wish to become implicated in any contest. For these reasons his presence on the board did not produce the results which were anticipated. Perhaps he had made up his mind that the reforms must come from without rather than from within.

In the latter part of the year 1897, when Mayor Harrison and his advisers had made the interesting discovery that the public-school system of the city of Chicago was a somewhat larger institution than they had supposed, there came the sug-

gestion that the mayor appoint an Educational Commission. The mayor adopted the idea. Of this commission Dr. Harper was made president. The remainder of the membership was made up of business men, ministers, and lawyers. There was not appointed a single representative of the thoughtful and energetic women of the city, nor a single public-school superintendent, principal, or teacher. It was generally remarked that the only man on the commission connected with educational work was a representative of a private school. As an institution, therefore, calculated to win the confidence and support of the public-school people of Chicago, the very make-up of the commission was a mistake. In July, 1898, it was confidently expected that Dr. Harper would be reappointed to the board, but the mayor claimed that it was being said that Dr. Harper was endeavoring to use the public-school system to help the University, that he was unable to eradicate this impression from the public mind, and that therefore he could not reappoint him. Dr. Harper felt that his failure to vote for the dismissal of Parker caused the mayor to reject him. He diligently continued his work as president of the Educational Commission, and in January, 1899, a report was made.

It is very evident from the tone of recent addresses and interviews that there is a great lack of information as to the situation during the past year. The impression seems to have gone forth that the attitude of the Chicago teaching force was the result of an organized effort to prevent the dismissal of incompetent teachers and the introduction of needed reforms. Justice requires that all the circumstances should be known. For a number of years there had been developing the idea that the superintendent should be given larger powers of initiative in the matter of appointments to the supervisory and teaching force. In the latter part of the year 1895 the board of education adopted important changes in its rules with reference to this matter. During the school year 1896-97 this principle had become pretty well established, and this without any action on the part of the State legislature. It was the personnel and attitude of the board supporting its new rules which made this possible. During the year 1897-98 constant

rumors of removals and proposed radical changes unsettled and disturbed the corps. A number of instances occurred in which the board members endeavored to help favorites into positions against the recommendations of the proper school officials. These cases created the feeling that the worst features of the "pull and influence" system were to be restored. Soon after arose the fight on Superintendent Lane and Colonel Parker, with rumors of numerous other removals. All these events still further agitated and unsettled the entire body. The school year 1898-99 was crowded with disturbing and distressing occurrences. A condition existed, caused not by a single circumstance, but by the combination of many circumstances. Just as the school corps recovered its breath after one body blow, another and more powerful one would stagger it.

First and foremost, there was thrown out the suggestion that large numbers of the teachers were incompetent, and that they must be removed. After all sorts of figures had been given, it was finally announced that about five per cent. of the teachers were inefficient. This meant about 250, or about one in each school. It was difficult to understand by what mathematical rules such exact figures had been obtained. It would be too long an argument to show the folly of reaching the real situation by any such general proclamations as were indulged in. The method must be a different one. In any large body there will be some who are not up to the standard. A professor in one of our great universities told the writer some time ago that if his university were to begin over again, fifty per cent. of the teaching corps would not be on the new list, but that no one would dare to propose that fifty per cent. of the staff should be dismissed. But it was not alone the suggestion of indiscriminate incompetency which caused alarm. The teachers felt that they were protected by the terms of the pension law, which created a tenure of office and provided for written charges and a hearing before discharge. Alas for them! It gradually leaked out that there was a new reading of the pension law. A flaw had been discovered, and it was claimed in the offices of the board of education that any super-

visor, principal, or teacher could be dropped without a word at the end of the year. A panic seized upon the whole corps. The security of position which had come to them in 1895 had vanished. The very foundations had disappeared.

Next came in rapid succession the action of the board, requiring all teachers to live in the city, and a resolution proposing to bar married women from the schools. But this was not all. The educational forces of Chicago had reached a point in their development where they felt that individually and collectively they had the right, which every citizen possesses, of free discussion and criticism, even of matters relating to the public schools. There was soon manifested a tendency to restrict this free expression of opinion. Various principals were called to account for having given utterance to this or that sentiment. A new sort of *lèse majesté* was proclaimed. Bulletin No. 10, sent out from the superintendent's office, cautioning against flippant criticism, was a firebrand thrown into the midst of the teaching corps of Chicago. In the light of the trials for *lèse majesté* and the admonitions of Bulletin No. 10 the reforms hinted at might mean the giving up of all that had been gained by the supervisory and teaching corps along the line of individual development and freedom of action.

It was in the midst of this ferment that the report and proposed school law of the commission made their appearance. The school forces, buffeted this way and that, not knowing whom to trust or what was coming next, were anxious for a view and discussion of the bill. The opportunity was not given. The bill was speedily presented in both houses of the legislature. The corps was in no frame of mind to look patiently upon what was regarded as an effort to railroad the bill thru. A most energetic protest was presented against hasty action, and this protest was joined in not alone by practically the entire supervisory and teaching body, but by many organizations of citizens.

The whole agitation which followed must be studied in the light of the various occurrences which have been described. No one incident could ever have produced such a condition.

The discussion which followed illumined a great many disputed points. The corps, having developed in their conception of the dignity and importance of the work of each individual teacher, resented the idea that everything should be concentrated in the hands of the superintendent, and demanded that in any reorganization due consideration be given to the entire force. The Council System met this idea. The school faculty of the proposed school law for Boston, the university council suggested by President Hadley of Yale, embody this thought. Policies should be formulated by a sort of educational cabinet, representative of all the forces connected with the school system. The commission bill unwisely made the board of education the advisory body. The school forces were not recognized by the law. Again, the teachers were anxious about the tenure of their positions. It was said that those who had given themselves to a life work should be freed from the dread of arbitrary action. It was suggested that a teacher failing to give satisfaction in one school should be tried in several schools before being finally dismissed from the force. The question of professional status came strongly to the front.

A recommendation by the commission with reference to the increased employment of men teachers and the payment to them of salaries larger than those paid to women teachers, added to the general panic. The liberal democracy of the West had given important recognition to woman and her work. Chicago had established the rule of equal pay for equal work. The women teachers and principals were fearful of the influence of this suggestion upon future appointments and promotions. Meanwhile the men teachers in the grades were making a strong stand for recognition. The president of the Horace Mann Club, in an address, said: "We are opposed to monopolies. We are too democratic to be contented with the caste system of education. . . . We believe every avenue should be open to the talents of men, and that in every line of labor they should have equal rights and opportunities with their sisters." Does this not sound like an extract from the resolutions of some woman's rights convention?

Of course the discussion is not yet closed, but out of it will come a clearing of the atmosphere, which will lead to great results. We shall determine the functions of the executive. We shall recognize the logic of the democratic principle. Having called forth the "spirits from the vasty deep," we cannot ask them to return. Above all, we must realize that there can be no peace until the question of tenure of position is settled for the teacher.

The legislative bill and its provisions absorbed so much of the teachers' attention and that of the general public that the report of the commission has seemingly been forgotten. It contains some conclusions to which the writer takes exception, and which he would like to point out did space permit. In the main, it is a discussion of administrative measures. As a summary of some matters which have been talked about up to the present time it is quite admirable, and to the man or woman, active in business or professional life, who has had no time to observe what is going on in the great educational world, it is a very interesting pamphlet.

But to the teaching corps of the city of Chicago there can be very little of interest therein. The teachers of this city are profoundly stirred by the influence of the great forces of the day. They have been moved by the words of the masters, and they are deeply impressed with the inadequacy of the means at their disposal for accomplishing the work which they should do. How can the commission report be of any help to them, when, in discussing the subject of a course of study, the report suggests, whenever it comes to a vital question, that this is a matter which the commission feels must be left to the experts? But it is on just those matters that the teachers want light, and it is at this point the commission leaves them just where they were before.

To the other tribulations of the teacher must be added the knowledge that the doctors disagree. This is an age of experiment, but that fact affords no consolation to the teacher, placed opposite the children in the classroom and who must be prepared to discharge his daily task. It is not a suggestion of machinery, it is not legislative action, it is not perfection of

administration that the teachers of Chicago want. Feeling the pressure of the demands of the closing days of the nineteenth century upon them, they wish to know in what directions their paths shall go. They wish to know where their energies will count. They wish to know in what respect and to what extent the work of the school must be reconstructed.

It is in this that we find the significance of the resignation of Mrs. Ella F. Young from the position of district superintendent. No one who heard her address, "The educational outlook," delivered in January of this year, could fail to recognize that she was deeply concerned about the work of the schools. She presented a great many questions which weigh heavily on the teachers' minds, but exceedingly few did she answer. Mrs. Young must have felt that educational leaders should be able to point the way. It is to be regretted that she did not remain to stand with those who believe in bold experiment in our public schools. Why must we all do the same thing at the same time in the same way? Why must we always wait until someone else has successfully tried something, and then adopt it ourselves? Why is it not possible for a superintendent to have this or that experiment going on in one school for a year or two, another experiment going on in another school for a year or two, and so on? Mrs. Young has just accepted a position at the Chicago University, where she is to have a chance to work in Professor John Dewey's experimental school. Colonel Parker's move may be explained by the fact that he feels the need for the broadest experimentation along educational lines, and he goes into the Teachers College because he and his faculty will have opportunity for preparing and executing their plans.

Much of what has been done by Mayor Harrison and the board of education during the past two years has such a reactionary appearance that many good people are concerned about the status of the public school. This feeling voices itself in the following extract from the resolutions passed by the Cook County League of Women's Clubs: "It is not only serious, but ominous, that the present educational movement in the city presents two typical features, viz.: the upbuilding

of private institutions and the relaxation,—on the grounds of economy,—in the administration of our public schools.” There are, however, very important indications that the influences which have been at work in obstructing the progress of our public schools have taken alarm from the attitude of the people, and it is very apparent that, if the people are watchful of their interests, further plans jeopardizing the welfare of the public schools will be abandoned.

A new Educational Commission is needed, a commission made up of those master minds who, speaking from a life’s experience in their work to those who have had a life’s experience in the same line of work, can feel that each will be understood by the other. In other words, the Chicago school situation goes into the inner life of the school work. It cannot be satisfied by perfection of administrative detail. It cannot be solved by getting things into such perfect form that the tapping of a bell on one desk can run the whole school system. The danger of the administrators is that they build up a perfect machinery and then imagine that they have achieved the entire structure. Mere administration often seems like the exterior of a great and noble building, from the outside view the perfection of beauty and of art. One goes up the magnificent stairway in front of the building and rings the bell. The door is opened. One steps thru the door and finds—nothing.

Democracy with its social ideals has possession of the teaching force of the city of Chicago. It waits for the master minds that can tell it how to achieve those ideals.

JOSEPH W. ERRANT

CHICAGO, ILL.

III

WOMEN IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The beginnings of the public school system found the majority of the schools in the hands of men. The "woman movement" had not begun and women had not then learned to leave their fathers' homes and go out into the world to earn their own livelihood; but that only in part explains the conditions that prevailed in regard to the schools. Teaching of itself was entirely respectable, and had been for generations one of the few occupations which a gentlewoman might enter with propriety. But the regular school work was not favored, and educated young women who had to support themselves, as a rule preferred to enter private families as governesses. "Dames' schools" were not uncommon, tho they were generally, if not always, small, were attended by only the youngest pupils, and were not taken seriously by anybody. But there was little or no prejudice, social or otherwise, to keep women from the schools like that which debarred them from so many other occupations that have since been opened to them.

The difficulty was that women were actually not physically able to do the work as it was then required. In the first place the school day was very long as compared to later standards. It began at 8 a. m. and lasted until 4—often until 5 p. m. Where the school was regularly taught it was in session practically the year round. Holidays were few, and even the practice of closing on Saturday has grown up within the last fifty or sixty years. As late as 1842 the schools of New York city were in session 49 weeks; those of Chicago, 48 weeks; the term in Brooklyn, Baltimore, and Cincinnati was 11 months, in Buffalo 12 months, in Detroit 259 days, and in Philadelphia, Boston, and Washington nearly as long.

Even if the modern improvements in methods, equipment, and, more than all else, in *boys*, had existed then, it would have

tested the endurance of the most robust woman to have withstood a siege of a single school year. But the length of the term was not the greatest difficulty. That feature of teaching which presented the most terrifying aspect to the timid novice was the matter of discipline, for it was only by drastic measures that a teacher could hold his own. The kind of discipline then prevalent is illustrated by the record made by an Eton head-master who flogged eighty boys in one night. Even he was not as continuously and energetically active as old Hauherle, the Swabian schoolmaster of whom it is so often told that during the fifty-one years and seven months of his official life he inflicted 911,527 blows with a rod, 124,010 blows with a cane, 20,989 taps with a ruler, 136,715 blows with the hand, 10,235 blows over the mouth, 7905 boxes on the ear, and 1,118,800 raps on the head. Seven hundred and seventy-seven times he made boys kneel on peas, and 613 times on a three-cornered piece of wood, made 3001 wear the dunce cap, and 1707 to hold up the rod.

Nor is it to be supposed that such modes of discipline were confined to the schools. Flogging prevailed in the armies and navies of the world until a comparatively recent date, and it was even a rule of the English common law that a man might chastise his wife, provided he did it as a loving husband should and without brutality.

So it was by universal custom and common consent that authority in any walk of life meant harshness, and discipline meant bodily pain. Corporal punishment, frequent and severe, was looked upon by parents, teachers, and children as a necessary part of school life. Accustomed to stern measures, the pupils had neither respect nor obedience to offer the teacher who was not ready and able to follow up his command with a blow. A "lock-out," a "smoking-out," or a "ducking" was as mild treatment as he could hope for. As for a woman, it was absolutely impossible for her to control a school unless she possessed a degree of strength of character and an abundance of tact that are given to few.

But the world has grown greatly in civilization in the last century. Its manners are milder and its methods are dictated

more by reason. Men do not often whip their wives now, and even a moderate chastisement is apt to lead to the divorce court. Harshness has gone out of fashion, and a public sentiment has arisen which makes it possible for a person of reasonable strength of body and of will to exercise any proper authority without the constant display of brute force.

In the field of education the most potent single agency in bringing about the improved attitude of the teacher toward the pupil and of the pupil toward the teacher has been the graded school. As far back as the time of Sturm, in the sixteenth century, there have been divisions of schools into yearly classes with examinations and promotions, but the graded school, as we know it, may be properly considered a growth on American soil. It came in the natural course of evolution, one step at a time, but it first reached its full development in the famous Quincy school of Boston, of which John D. Philbrick was the principal, in 1847.

It is hard to realize the tremendous effect that grading has had upon school discipline. It is primarily a device by which pupils may be instructed more economically by means of an intelligent division of labor in giving each teacher pupils of a like degree of advancement. But it is much more.

In the ungraded school the teacher could give her attention only to a very small portion of the class at any one time. A school of moderate size might easily have had twenty-five or thirty classes, and as a matter of fact generally did have that many. So the time between the recitations of any one pupil was necessarily much longer than was required for study. We all know what an idle brain is; and the devil does not want any better workshops than he can find in an ungraded school.

In the graded school, on the contrary, at least half the pupils are engaged in recitation at the same time. Each pupil is on the alert lest he be called upon suddenly; if he is not in the section reciting all his thought must be given to preparation for the next lesson. His time is fully occupied. That of itself is of the greatest value in discipline. Then, too, the personality of the teacher in influencing the school has infinitely greater scope, and her individuality is felt far more

when she is herself constantly occupying the attention of her pupils. They learn to know her better, and she is enabled to enlist their sympathy and co-operation, and thus to reduce the difficulties of discipline to the lowest terms. A weak woman with reasonable tact can now do the work which formerly required a bully.

The American system of supervision is also an agency which has aided in bringing about the employment of women. The moral as well as the active support which a principal or superintendent gives to his assistants is sufficient to bolster up many teachers who would be unable to hold their own if thrown upon their own resources. The knowledge that there is always a strong will which may be called upon for aid is a constant encouragement to inexperienced or weak teachers, and a deterrent to mischievous pupils.

These changed conditions, namely, the better public sentiment toward discipline, the graded school, and constant supervision, made women teachers possible, on the one hand, and on the other, the increase in women teachers to a great extent made these changes necessary and was an important factor in bringing them about. In fact, milder discipline, graded schools, supervision, and the preponderance of women teachers grew up together, and each influenced and helped to bring about the others. It is impossible, of course, to assign a date for the beginning of more rational discipline, but the other three innovations may be shown to have come almost simultaneously. Notice these coincidences:

Graded schools had their beginning in 1847, as I have said.

The first instance of professional supervision occurred in 1849, when Nathan Bishop was made superintendent of the city schools of Providence, R. I.

The Baltimore public schools began in 1829 with two male and two female teachers. The number of each sex continued about equal for nearly twenty years, men teaching the boys' schools and women teaching the girls' schools. In 1848 an innovation was made and fifteen women were put in the boys' schools (at an annual salary, by the way, of \$150 each). The women have been in the majority ever since.

St. Louis had one male and one female teacher at the inception of its school system in 1837. There were 5 men and 5 women in 1844, and by 1858 the men had increased to 20 and the women to 108.

In Cincinnati there were 21 men and 38 women in the schools in 1840, and 34 men and 108 women in 1850.

These cities are typical. The disproportionate increase of women began in the latter '40's, when it had been shown that the public schools with grading and professional supervision could be conducted with weaker and cheaper teachers without the expense of employing a "principal" for each room. Unquestionably the original motive was economy in nearly all cases. The records show that very clearly.

As time passed the public and the pupils became more accustomed to women teachers and discipline became easier for them. They proved to be more sympathetic and at least as successful teachers of young children as men, and their numbers increased still more on that account. Then the civil war took many of the male teachers away, and the proportion of women grew still faster. Finally, the impression prevailed extensively that it was only necessary that the principal of an elementary school be a man and all the assistants might just as well be women.

Then, to come down to recent times, since the number of male assistants has been reduced to a minimum, the supply of desirable men for principals has been all but cut off, and as women are always at hand who have had long experience in teaching and who show evidence of some executive ability, principalships have been given to them. Here again the question of economy enters into the calculation, for when a woman is promoted to a principalship she does not, as a rule, receive as much as her male predecessor had been paid. The feeling is now, in many places, that experienced women teachers make the best principals that can be secured under the present conditions. Female principals, therefore, may be considered a fixture. In Wilmington, Minneapolis, and some other cities there are no men whatever in the elementary schools; in Atlanta there is one male grammar school principal only; in

Grand Rapids there are 4 male principals and 29 women; Louisville has 19 women principals and 10 men; in St. Louis the sexes are about equally represented; there are 38 women to 11 men in charge of the schools of Cleveland. And this list might be continued to a much greater length. In none of the cities I have mentioned is there a single male assistant in any elementary school.

I have taken all my illustrations so far from cities, but the increasing proportion of women is by no means confined to them. In the United States as a whole men teachers have increased in number only eighteen per cent. in the last twenty years, while women teachers have increased eighty per cent.

The question naturally arises, Where is this going to end? Is the tendency to continue until there are no more male principals of whom superintendents may be made? There are now 2 State superintendents, 16 city superintendents, and 228 county superintendents who are women, and the number constantly grows. Are the schools to be administered entirely by women? To be sure there is little probability that the change will progress to this extent, but the indications are that the end is not yet reached, for there is a growing inclination to consider elementary education the special province of woman. Conspicuous evidences of this may be found in the laws of many of the States, both in the East and in the West, permitting women to vote at school elections and at no other; in the custom of political conventions in woman's suffrage States of habitually naming women for the office of State school superintendent and for no other office, and in the action of the directors of the recent Trans-Mississippi Exposition at Omaha, who turned over their department of education to women and practically confined their activities to that department alone.

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IV

ENGLISH IN REGENTS' SCHOOLS

It is my intention to offer a few observations upon the work in English as conducted in secondary schools under the direction of the Regents of the University of the State of New York. As the criticisms involved are in part adverse to the more common of the two courses followed in the State, I shall begin by endeavoring to establish my position with reference to English teaching in general and follow with an examination of the Regents' courses in particular.

It is not easy to formulate the general aim of education in such a way as to be at once concise and comprehensive. The statement which suits us best is the phrase "complete living." This may be accepted, if understood.

The thoroly educated man is the man whose powers are fully developed. Each capacity is ready for its most complete use. At first thought this may seem like a suggestion of uniformity in results. If this were meant, it would be valueless. When the best has been done for A and B, A is an expert chemist while B is a successful merchant, but neither is entirely narrowed to his own line and both are at the best in all respects of which they are separately capable. This is the law of individuality. We can diminish its force and pay the penalty, but we cannot utterly subvert its action. To contravene this law is not education, it is stultification. It is the business of educators to follow, not to nullify this law. It is on this divergence in possibilities among men that the soundest argument for a properly guarded elective system in the schools rests.

The well-educated man stands before us, then, as one whose powers are as thoroly developed as is for him possible. He is not narrow, but he is nevertheless in the main a special-

ist. He is in the best possible condition to use his natural powers completely—ready, that is, to be of the most use to himself and to others and to be happy in the exertion of this power; and this is what we mean by “complete living.” But this ability to be useful is neither voluntarily nor easily acquired. Man does not submit readily to prolonged training, nor does he use his power when acquired, without adequate inducement. So far as subjects which come within the range of school programs are concerned, this means that the content of the subject must be to him valuable and it must be capable of arousing his permanent interest. The content of the subject, and the incentives it can furnish, are therefore for us the points about which our discussion must center. The content of English study may be fairly expressed by the statement that it furnishes us with a means of communication and acquaints us with literature. Our aims in teaching the subject should therefore be directed toward bringing the incentives involved in this double content to bear as efficiently as possible upon the pupil. This is a matter of method. It is the heart of our discussion.

We may say then that the first and most obvious aim of English study is to acquire command of the means of communication used by our race, the art of fluent, intelligent, and intelligible expression. It is idle to deny, and therefore useless to argue upon, the value of expression. We will assume it as admitted that our thoughts are of extremely little value unless they can be expressed. Expression, so far as we are now to discuss it, formulates itself in two ways, orally and in writing. For success in the first clear articulation and a proper use of modulation and emphasis are special necessities; the latter demands plain penmanship, accurate spelling, and a knowledge of the accepted technicalities of manuscript; while for both there is need of correct comprehension of the meaning and relation of words, and facility in the art of composition. Since these things are confessedly not entirely at the command of the pupil as he enters the secondary school, they remain as ends toward which our efforts are to be directed. Grammar, oral expression, and

composition, then, are the three subdivisions under which we should deal with the art of expression. Not in the elementary way, however. Do not understand us as suggesting either beginnings or the methods to them appropriate.

There are, we think, two periods in a man's life at which he can acquire a language easily: one when he has reached manhood; the other in the few years before he reaches the age of puberty. But the methods in these cases have a striking dissimilarity. In the first he can bring to bear a man's power of reason and concentration of mind and purpose, and is therefore powerfully aided by a knowledge of the laws governing the relations of words, sentences, and paragraphs; *i. e.*, by formal grammar and rhetoric. At the latter age reason acts but feebly; technical grammar as such is accepted "on authority," fails to command any permanent interest, and thus becomes, not entirely, but relatively useless. The efficient method at this age is imitation. How powerful a factor this is will be at once acknowledged when we recall the almost utter futility of all efforts at school toward reconstructing the oral expression of a child brought up in, and remaining in, illiterate home surroundings. Neat, clear, and simple expression ought to become a habit, and the effort of the secondary school, so far as this aim is concerned, should be directed toward fostering and fixing habits for which a foundation has been laid previously. With this task, strangely enough, the teacher of English, as such, has, and in the nature of things can have, very little to do. Its accomplishment lies mainly in the hands of the other teachers in the schools. "Neat and comely expression" must be made habitual, we have said, but neatness and comeliness of expression never can become habitual if insisted upon in the English room and neglected in the scientific. Every teacher, no matter what his specialty, should also be a teacher of English. Neither the teacher of Latin nor of mathematics, nor of any other subject, should permit glaring inaccuracies of expression or slovenliness of form to pass unchallenged.

In what I have said I am not referring to written expression alone. Plain, clear, intelligible, and sympathetic oral

expression is as necessary, is perhaps even more necessary, than written.

Bear in mind that the aim I am just now discussing is the possibility of communication of ideas, and that the age to which we refer is that of young people just entering their teens. The reasoning power is feeble, ideas are few, but the imitative power is strong. It is irrational to expect to secure mastery of expression at this age. The pupil cannot express ideas unless he has them. He can learn the form, but the form is useless and unintelligible to him if he cannot fill it with ideas. Like the founder's mold, it soon crumbles to a useless heap of sand if not filled with the glowing metal. You will see therefore that while I am admitting the usefulness of technical grammar and formal rhetoric to a limited extent, I am deprecating their continual and excessive use, and entering a plea for the attainment of my aim by the way of the study of good models, of imitation, and the acquisition of ideas and ideals.

And this brings me to the next step in my argument. However necessary oral and written expression are, and however desirable clearness and facility may be, the use of language is not the only nor the main aim before the English teacher. There belongs to the English-speaking race a body of literature almost unrivaled. Beauty of form and elegance of diction, the picturesque and vivid in narrative, the play of passion, the expression of noble sentiment, depth and intensity of thought—all these and more are portrayed in our literature by the hand of genius and are ours for the taking. This literature cannot only furnish to our pupils the best models of expression, but, what is of vastly more consequence, thru it they can become acquainted with the noblest of thought and the highest of aspirations.

We are told that the aim of education is to prepare for complete living, and that complete living means to be as useful as possible and to be happy. Usefulness means activity in that which promotes the interests of mankind. The kind of service in which an individual can make himself most useful and the degree of happiness to which he can attain are

obviously determined by the interests which control him and by his power. The character of the incentive and the power to think and act developed have, therefore, much to do with the educational value of any particular subject.

"Literature and history,"—if I may now quote from Professor Hanus,—“and also some forms of art and portions of philosophy, have an ethical content; *i. e.*, they portray directly or by contrast the highest ideals of achievement, ‘beauty, honor, duty, and love,’ and reveal the effect of these ideals on human aspiration and conduct. These ideals are the highest ideals of the race. When they dominate the actions of men, they usually insure the best and most complete usefulness and happiness. The incentives growing out of these ideals are, therefore, higher than all others; that is to say, ethical incentives are the highest incentives.

“Hence, when language and literature, history, and appropriate portions of philosophy and art develop interest, these subjects have a higher educational value than all others, for they are not only rich in possible incentives, but they embody also the highest incentives, and thru interest they may develop permanent habits of thought and action in harmony with those incentives . . . moreover, these subjects are needed for ethical and social enlightenment. No human being should be a stranger to the highest ideals of the race, since everyone can be influenced to some extent by them.”

Accepting, then, literature as the second of our general aims in English teaching, let us for a moment consider what subordinate aims develop themselves under this head. The ethical and æsthetic motives have already been referred to. There are others more or less intimately connected with these and with each other, but distinct enough to be separated in our thinking and planning. In the first place, there is what Herbart calls the sympathetic. The teacher must beware of becoming too technical. He should not allow his subject to become separate in his pupils' mind from the world in which they live. He should not let literature detach itself and become isolated from other subjects in the curriculum, nor should he allow the idea to gain possession of his pupil's

mind that noble thoughts and lofty aspirations do not belong to every-day living. "Close and sympathetic appreciation of the world in which we live" can, it seems to me, be developed by this subject as by no other. It is intensely humanistic and may be made to help powerfully in one of the chief aims of education—the formation of character.

In the second place, dealing practically with the subject on its information side, there are several matters partaking partly of the nature of aims, partly of that of methods, which need attention. We notice that most teachers have preferred to handle literature by the blocks, or epochs, into which it is quite readily divided, while a few use what we have heard called the line method, *i. e.*, the method which takes some subjects, as, for instance, the English novel, and follows it thru its whole history. In proceeding by either method it is possible to commence with first beginnings and follow the chronological order, or to begin with the present and reverse the process. It is possible also to place the weight of effort either on the history of the literature or on the content. The attack may also be intensive or extensive, and, in the remoter details, it may be a question whether the reading insisted upon, either in class or out, shall be careful and critical, or cursory, or both.

Personally I do not see the wisdom of complete separation in many of the contrasting methods I have mentioned. Exhaustive treatment is both undesirable and impossible. The whole of literature cannot be mastered at this age, but the pupil ought to get a survey of the whole as an organic growth; he should not be left with the feeling that literature consists of detached bits, or blocks, or lines, nor should his mind be so occupied with the history or the content that its reality remains either unseen or unfelt. In short, we are inclined to combine all these methods except the chronological. In regard to this latter, tho other considerations prevent exactness, it seems best to us to commence with the present and work backward to the past. The youth lacks the linguistic training necessary for one who would commence at the origin of literature, and he is also incapable of gaining the point of

view or of grasping the historical setting without which any adequate comprehension of the early writers is impossible, while modern thoughts and modern history are more or less understood by him, and certainly much more readily explainable to him. But whatever be the method or order followed, he should be taught to appreciate and to assimilate ideas, to gain some information of the methods of literary research, to handle expeditiously and effectively books of reference, and above all, to see and feel the close relation which the whole study bears to other subjects and to real life.

If I may now condense into tabular form the points I have been discussing, we shall have the following scheme. To it we may append a short statement which will serve both as an explanation of the scheme and a summary to our discussion.

THE STUDY OF ENGLISH

A Aims

1 Expression 2 Literature

1 Expression

a. Reason—The need of communication.

b. Oral expression,

Requiring

1. Articulation.
2. Modulation.
3. Emphasis.

c. Written expression,

Requiring

1. Penmanship.
2. Spelling.
3. Knowledge of the accepted technicalities of MSS.

And both demanding knowledge of

1. The meanings and relations of words.
2. The art of composition.

NOTE—Grammar, analysis, and rhetoric not to be omitted. All teachers to assist in perfecting the habit of "neat and comely expression."

2 Literature

a. Reasons.

1. Its educational value, rich in ethical and æsthetic incentives.
2. Abounds in useful and pleasure-giving knowledge.
3. Lends itself readily to the cultivation of sympathy.

b. Methods.

1. Chronological order a progression backward from the present.
2. Comprehensive view to be reached.

3. Individual works to be the basis, but
4. Epochs may be mastered by collateral reading.
5. Content to be the main aim, but not to the total neglect of
6. History of language and literature.
7. Extension to be the chief plan, but
8. Intention not to be neglected.
9. Literary research, including ability to use books of reference.
10. Correlations with other subjects and with life.
11. Identity of preparation not to be insisted upon.

The study of English, in the secondary school, that is, has for its aims expression and literature.

The reason for training in expression is found in the universal need of communication. It involves both oral and written expression; the former requires articulation, modulation, and emphasis; the latter requires penmanship, spelling, and an adequate knowledge of the accepted technicalities of manuscript, while both demand knowledge of the meanings and relations of words and of the art of composition. Grammar, analysis, and rhetoric are not to be omitted, and all teachers are to assist in perfecting the habit of "neat and comely expression."

The reasons for the study of literature are to be found in its educational value. It is rich in ethical and æsthetic incentives, abounds in useful and pleasurable information, and lends itself readily to the cultivation of what Herbart calls sympathy.

So far as methods are concerned, the chronological order should be a progression backward from the present to the past. It may not be practicable or wise to be exact in this, but the retrogressive order can be substantially maintained, while the basis of work at any one point will generally be the separate works of a single author. The teacher is not to rest contented until a comprehensive view of literature as an organic growth has been reached. Epochs may be mastered by collateral reading, as may also correlations with the other subjects of the curriculum. The content is assuredly the most valuable part, but the history of language and literature is not to be totally neglected. The bulk of the work should be extensive, but a prominent place must be given to

the intensive method. The pupils should be introduced to the methods of literary research and enabled to acquire the ability to handle books of reference effectively. Identity of preparation is not a necessity.

The difficulties which surround the practical handling of this subject have been partly sketched by Professor Barrett Wendell. He believes that the chief difficulties the pupil has to contend with are (1) the belief which so persistently besets him that all study tends toward isolated specialization, *i. e.*, if I understand him, tends toward preparation for some particular object, and (2) the constant and necessary accumulation of undigested material which he is compelled, and ought to be compelled, to make at this age. To this I will venture to add a third, namely, the curious difficulty he has in understanding that there *can* be much to learn in what he is able to read and comprehend (as he thinks) easily. The chief difficulties for the teacher Professor Wendell states to be (1) an imperfect understanding of the *mediatory* character of his position, *i. e.*, that it is his office to act as a connection between his pupils and life, keeping them and their studies in close contact with the world; (2) the fact that he is constantly finding himself more ignorant than his pupils on special points and being hampered by his discovery; and (3) a tendency to make his work too technical. To this we may add the practical difficulty involved in handling large groups of pupils and large quantities of manuscript.

That such a scheme will work and work efficiently I know from actual observation and trial, but there are two essential conditions to its success: properly equipped and enthusiastic teachers, and a sufficient time allotment. These are, however, not conditions peculiar to English teaching; they are the conditions of successful teaching in any subject. The reason for emphasis here is that English teaching has been too often put into the hands of incompetents and remanded to an obscure or limited portion of the curriculum. One great failing of our program has been that many subjects have not been taught either long enough or continuously enough to insure the development of their educational value. This sub-

ject ought to have at least four periods per week for the full course of four years.

And now, having stated our position regarding English teaching in general, let us turn, with that statement in mind, to a consideration of the two courses offered by the Regents. We will take first that course which includes advanced English, English composition, etc.

This course presents a definite, well-wrought-out plan for the study of technical grammar and rhetoric, but contains no suggestion for the study of literature worthy of serious mention. That is, this course makes toward one of the aims of English study, namely, a means of communication, but neglects the other, literature.

The content of such a course is valuable,—of this there can be no question,—but it lacks in interest for the pupils of the age for which it is prepared, and therefore fails to furnish incentives to effort. We have insisted on content and interest as our tests. However valuable the content may be, a subject is uneconomic in our program unless it furnishes incentives to effort capable of arousing permanent interest on the part of those for whom it is prescribed.

Formal work of any kind, if intelligently and intelligibly presented, will arouse temporary interest, and is, to this extent, useful. Its fault is that the interest aroused is temporary, not permanent; it soon passes into uninspiring and therefore useless drudgery. The inference we are compelled to draw from the facts is not that we should discard formal work, but that we should limit its use to its useful fields. Latin has been of late years a much-abused school subject. It became a cormorant and swallowed so much school time that it aroused resentment among those whose time was vanishing. It was compelled to mend its ways. Out of the experience of its skillful teachers we ought to be able to gather a valuable lesson. We do not bolt our Latin forms and rules *en masse* now, as I had to; we take them in small portions, as we can appreciate their use. We do it because this process retains the interest and saves time—it is a more economic and (or *because*) a more philosophic method. In mathematics,

too, we have ceased to begin with a mass of definitions. We take them as we come to need them, apply them at once, and continue their use. If this is sound psychology, the other is not. If this is pedagogically economic, the other is certainly pedagogically wasteful and should be abandoned. We therefore condemn utterly that particular Regents' course which includes advanced English, rhetoric, etc.

The line of reasoning which compels my dissent from one of the Regents' courses commands my assent to the other. I will therefore avoid repetition of argument, but cannot refrain from calling attention to one point: the course called first-, second-, and third-year English does not neglect the content of the other course; technical grammar, composition, and rhetoric are to be taught, but not *as* grammar, or composition, or rhetoric. These things are to be handled in connection with literature in which they find their illustration and develop their use. After I had said this, or something like it, in Otsego county recently a bright young fellow retorted, "Oh, you wish to teach the thing without calling it by its name!" Well, I was disappointed; partly because he got the laugh on me, which is always unpleasant, but mainly because I had failed to make myself understood. I would like to avoid that here. I do not care a penny whether we call the thing by its name or not; that is a matter of complete indifference. I want the thing—part of it—but I want it in the best way, and, what is to my mind of vastly more importance, I want the literature. The pupil who passes out of the doors of our high schools without a considerable acquaintance with and taste for good literature, who has learned to read but does not know what to read, who cannot tell good literature from bad, who has not felt the power, the uplift, the enlightenment of the intellectual, ethical, and æsthetic ideals which are found in the literature of the English language, has failed to develop to its best the power that is in him, has missed his highest usefulness and happiness, and has been defrauded of his birth-right as an English-thinking and -speaking person.

I have lately asked our principal English teacher, Mr.

G. A. Watrous, to state in writing what appeared to him to be the advantages of the first-, second-, and third-year English course as compared with the course in advanced English, etc. His concise statement is as follows:

1. Literature itself is presented; not merely laws that govern its technical form.

2. The essential technical knowledge is gained by observing the form; not by someone's description.

3. The student does his own work; the results are his own—his originality is cultivated.

4. Authors, as men and as speakers, are known at first hand.

5. There is a wider survey of literature at no sacrifice of necessary technical knowledge.

6. A definite, personal knowledge is gained of matters for which no adequate definition can be made, *e. g.*, style and its several elements.

7. Greater interest is aroused, and attention is held by direct contact with living specimens. Literature becomes to the student something real and personal.

8. The greater familiarity with good literature increases taste for itself.

9. This familiarity increases facility in the use of pure English.

10. The courses of advanced English, rhetoric, etc., are limited to technical knowledge—a thing of no value in itself.

And he adds further:

1. Independence and originality of thought are secured by the student's personal criticism.

2. The reasoning power is developed by the analysis of books—plan, plot, characters, etc.

3. Accuracy of thought is stimulated (a) by a familiarity with careful thinkers; (b) by a study of motives, and by the observation of mental processes of characters, and of author, and the relation between author, characters, and readers; (c) by comparison and contrast of authors and works.

4. The memory is assisted by the association of author and work.

5. An advance is made in the direction of independent grouping of related facts.

6. Power of concentration is increased by the constant demand for accuracy and individual work.

And now that I have expressed my preference for one of the Regents' courses, I will venture to make a few criticisms and suggestions regarding it. My criticisms are two in number. First, that the course is not well balanced; second, that it is incomplete.

In the first- and second-year English the ratio between technical and literary work is not clearly defined in the syllabus. If in the first-year English, in addition to the indicated literary work, the same amount of grammatical work is expected as is called for in advanced English and English composition, then too much is demanded. If a less amount of technical instruction be the plan, a clearer indication of the character of the work, and of the relative importance attached to each part, should be made.

A similar criticism and a similar suggestion may be made regarding second-year English as compared with rhetoric, and it may be urged further that the importance of rhetorical drill and literary chronology is vaguely stated.

The technical and literary parts of this course ought to be what a mathematician would call regular variables; the first a decreasing variable; the latter an increasing. In the first year the technical part should be considerable; afterward it should recede further and further into the background, for the reason that "form" is becoming habitual. But the syllabus should state the matter clearly and the examinations should be made on the syllabus basis.

2. The course in question seems to me incomplete in that it makes no provision for a fourth year of English work forming a proper sequence to the first-, second-, and third-year English. Is not this the place for intensive work on some period, or some subject? Why may not such correlations as United States history and American history, or English

literature of (say) the reign of Elizabeth and English history for the same era, or a similar arrangement for the Victorian era, be placed here?

Finally, the English reading course, intended, I suppose, to cover the modern college entrance requirements, now requires far more time and care than can be given in one year. It should be advanced in dignity in the Regents' scheme. If this course could be identified with the other course, a large practical gain could be made in school organization.

In closing I may say that the double-headed New York system of educational control is perplexing—it is a queer anomaly—it seems dicentric rather than concentric—its effect, it would seem, ought to be confusing and uneconomic. With regard to the Regents' part of the work, I may say frankly that I began with an inclination toward dislike but have become a provisional convert. The whole scheme seems to me to be beset by such extraordinary dangers as to preclude even the hope of success. And yet it does succeed. All honor then to the wisdom, foresight, and executive ability of its managers! Therefore let it be understood that my criticism and suggestions are offered in the kindest spirit and are meant to be constructive, not destructive, in character.

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V

THE TEACHING OF GERMAN IN GERMANY¹

In responding to the request of the Editor for a brief but comprehensive article on the method of instruction in the German language now in use in the schools of Germany, I must begin by distinguishing the lower, intermediate, and higher schools. The lower schools are the public elementary schools with children of from six to fourteen years of age; in the intermediate schools I include the middle-class schools with a course of nine years, from the sixth to the fifteenth year, and the high schools for girls with, usually, ten school years, from the sixth to the sixteenth year. The group of higher schools includes the real-schule, real-gymnasium, and the gymnasium.

I begin naturally with the public elementary school and with the first instruction in reading and writing. This instruction has two characteristic features: it follows a natural analytic-synthetic method, and it is closely connected with other subjects of instruction which at this period may be briefly described as object-lessons in the widest sense.

1. The first instruction in reading and writing is analytic-synthetic in character. The starting-point is a number of disconnected words which are selected and arranged according to their relative difficulty. They are so-called standard words (*Normalwörter*). One such word is presented as a whole; it is then reduced to its elements, the sounds of its component parts are given, and the letters again put together to form the whole. Then follows, according to the capacity of the children, the making of new combinations of the letters other than those in the standard words. So soon as sufficient familiarity with the letters has been attained the synthesis progresses from words to the making of short sentences. In this manner the child masters during the first school year the

¹ Translated for the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW from the author's manuscript by Alice Nisbet Parker

German alphabet of small and capital letters. Instruction in writing goes hand in hand with the reading lessons; what the children read they must also write. In order to simplify the task as far as possible many primers use at first only the written letters; the printed letters follow when due familiarity and skill have been acquired with these. Numbers are usually represented in both ways, side by side.

2. Early instruction in reading and writing is closely connected with object-teaching. Before analyzing a word it is connected with the object for which it stands, and in order to lighten the task of both teacher and children the primers are illustrated with pictures of the object denoted by the standard words. These form the starting-point for the object-teaching during the first school year. The rather dry task of reading and writing may be made interesting by the teacher's skill in arousing interest in the pictures and objects, while at the same time opportunity is given for broadening and stimulating the minds of the children. Many primers, especially the older ones, are illustrated with disconnected pictures side by side with the corresponding words. The newer ones, however, present a series of connected scenes which naturally excite the interest of the children to a much greater extent and yield far better results.

The standard words are also used to give the child practice in verbal expression; so that a combination of reading, writing, speaking, and object-teaching is carried on. This is concentration in the best sense of the word, and it may be further extended to the fields of singing, drawing, and arithmetic.

It may be remarked here that there is a strong movement in Germany to abolish formal reading and writing during the first school year in favor of object-teaching and practice in verbal expression. This view has made a hard but apparently unsuccessful struggle against the method universally in vogue. It has, however, been successful in deepening the insight into the fact that instruction during the first school year has greater and more important ends to accomplish than mere mechanical skill in reading and writing.

I now come to consider the methods employed in instruction

in the mother tongue during the remainder of the course in the public elementary schools. I speak first of reading. Formerly the method followed three successive steps: the lower classes were required to read aloud slowly and correctly, the intermediate classes progressed to a mechanical fluency, the upper classes alone read with any taste or expression. Of this method, which cannot be denied a certain amount of reason and is not yet fully abolished, it may be said at least that the lines of division are no longer so rigidly drawn. No sooner had the knowledge of phonetics begun to exercise some influence over the instruction in the mother tongue, than practice in reading aloud in the intermediate and upper grades of many of the public schools began to play an important rôle, and if signs do not fail it will play a still greater part in the future. Reading with taste and expression is no longer the exclusive privilege of the upper grades, but is practiced according to the measure of ability of the pupils in the lower and intermediate grades as well. It is the same with fluency in reading; in fact, the aim now is to read as well as possible in all grades and under all circumstances.

The subject-matter of the reading-books usually consists of a collection of separate articles, and, as respects difficulty of topic and of language, it is arranged to suit the capacity of each grade. It was formerly and often is still of an encyclopedic nature. The Herbartian school has tried to displace the encyclopedic reading-book for such books as offer a connection of ideas, but it has succeeded only to the extent of causing compilers of readers to show more care in selecting subjects which can be easily connected with other lessons and so, in one sense, sustain the principle of concentration. Moreover, the contents of the reading-books are of an excellent literary character: that is to say, such articles as deal with natural history, geography, and history have not the nature of ordinary textbooks, but present the subject in what may be described as a classic form. One of the most striking of modern features is the use of literature connected with the national life, such as folk-lore, folk-songs, fairy tales, and sagas.

In the majority of schools, the reading lessons are confined

to the contents of the readers; in many, however, an entire classical work is read during the last school year. For instance, Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell* in the boys' schools and Goethe's *Hermann und Dorothea* in the girls' schools.

The Herbartians have also advocated the use of commentaries by the teachers on both poems and prose works, and have thus greatly improved the instruction connected with the reading lesson. Unfortunately, however, the majority of reading lessons go on in the same old way: reading aloud by the teacher, a repetition on the part of the pupils, then a discussion as to its meaning and another reading by the pupils.

The study of literature in the public school has naturally but a small compass and confines itself principally to the reader. The forms and kinds of poetry are developed in connection with the poem being read; very little is said of the poets themselves. Certain ones, such as Theodor Körner and Ernst Moritz Arndt, are treated more in detail, but always in some narrow connection with the poems which the children are studying. At the end of the school term a review is taken of the book, and its contents criticised from different literary points of view. There are short literary studies suited to the needs of the public schools, but they are very little used by the children.

For an adequate appreciation of the verbal beauties of the language, memorizing of both prose and poetry is required, especially of poetry, and here it is necessary to pause a moment to mention the subject of recitations upon which many modern schools lay particular stress. In preparing for the recitation of a memorized poem the first step is a discussion of the subject; then comes a more exact rendering of it from the standpoint of phonetics and phrasing. This does not mean that the first insight into the meaning of the poem is a contribution from teacher to pupil, but that its interpretation is psychologically developed from the children with the help of the teacher. This is an exceptionally interesting and fruitful exercise, as many of my English and American friends who have had the opportunity of being present during one of these lessons will testify. It may be here remarked that a recita-

tion in chorus of a poem which has been so studied produces a genuinely artistic effect and may be used very effectively for school entertainments. In our own school, at an entertainment before an audience of eight hundred persons, Uhland's version of *The luck of Edenhall* was recited in chorus by a class of boys with tremendous success. I should much like to hear in an American school such a rendering of Poe's *Raven*. So much for the recitation of memorized poems. The most important medium for improving pronunciation and the power of expression is the discussion in connection with the lessons. This goes on, not with grammar and language lessons alone, but in connection with the instruction in all subjects. It goes without saying that every lesson should be a lesson in the use of language. In this respect the influence of the Herbartian school has been great. They require at the end of each reading lesson an independent summary by the pupil of its contents. This opportunity for speech and practice in expression one finds only here and there in the upper schools and never in the public elementary school.

Written thought-expression or composition writing is primarily but not entirely confined to the subject-matter of the language lessons: the aim of this exercise being that the pupil should be able to state simply and in a well-ordered and clear manner what he knows, and thus testify to the extent of his acquirements. Formerly it was expected, even of the pupils in the elementary school, to have "thoughts of their own" expressed in the best manner possible. The results were naturally only partially satisfactory; often they were grotesque, and there has been very generally a reaction from this plan. Compositions, however, are not expected to be simple re-statements of the lesson, but rather a working over of the subject from a specially chosen standpoint. Subjects are also chosen which have come within the actual experience of the children. American friends have often told me that our methods in composition writing are next in success to their own. As regards this statement I should not like to express an opinion, as my knowledge of the subject does not extend far enough.

I must now speak of the great variety of methods which exists in grammar instruction. In many schools, grammar instruction is an independent subject, adhering strictly to the text-book and not concerning itself at all with other studies; in others it is on a systematic footing, but is conducted entirely in connection with the reading-lessons; in others still, tho systematically conducted, it confines itself entirely to composition writing; and finally we have all system discarded and the lessons given when the "opportunity arises" in connection with reading or composition writing, or both.

It is especially worthy of remark that lately, under the influence of the celebrated German, Rudolf Hildebrand, formal instruction in grammar has given place somewhat to the study of etymology and related topics. This, at any rate, is pre-eminently calculated to open a way to the more thoro understanding of the language and to awaken a deeper interest in and love for the mother-tongue.

In leaving the subject of grammar teaching a few words must be said on instruction in spelling. In this case results cannot be said to have proved satisfactory. No matter whether there has been a special course in orthography or whether the cure has been sought simply in correcting or extirpating existing errors, or in a combination of both methods, it is unfortunately a fact that of all the pupils educated in the common schools only one-third are able to spell with some degree of correctness.

What I have already said of language instruction in the elementary schools holds good in general for the middle-class schools, and for the girls' high schools. But a longer school term demands correspondingly greater results. It is worthy of special notice that in the girls' high school the reading of classic literature has a much larger horizon and more effort is made to awaken literary taste and appreciation. Grammatical instruction is conducted in a somewhat more thoro way in connection with the study of foreign languages. There is more composition work, and with this the power of expression and of original writing go much farther.

Before beginning an account of the higher schools I must

pause to recall a saying of the late director of the Frankesche Institute in Halle, Dr. Otto Frick, which in essentials still has force: "In respect to methods the elementary school is the high school of the high schools." The fact is that methods of instruction in the high schools cannot yet be compared with those in use in the elementary schools. Lately, however, they have become greatly improved thru the efforts of men like Frick, who do not disdain to learn from them.

In one respect they have deteriorated; at least, in Prussia, where one expects it least. The higher schools in Prussia are affiliated with so-called preparatory schools, in which children from six years of age and upward receive instruction necessary for entrance into the higher schools. Formerly the preparatory school course covered four years, and during that time a sufficiently broad foundation could be laid for the later studies, especially as the instruction was in the hands of men well prepared and fitted for their positions.

Now, however, the course has been restricted to three years and the time is far too short for a psychologically correct treatment of the subjects of instruction. Everything is subordinated to the needs of the fourth school year. The ground covered by the instruction is narrowed down to the smallest amount possible, and it necessarily becomes very superficial. Pupils prepared in this way are far inferior in experience to those who have spent four years in the common schools before entering the higher schools. It is greatly to be regretted that the preparatory school course is not again lengthened to four years, in order that the pupil may be better grounded, at least in the mother tongue. It would be better still if the preparatory school could be done away with altogether and the system introduced which now gives such general satisfaction in Bavaria; namely, a course in the elementary school as a preparation for the higher schools.

It would be impossible to give the status of instruction in the higher schools, or even in the elementary schools in all the provinces, and yet I must not speak of them altogether in general. My observations, then, will be confined to the schools in the largest province; namely, Prussia, which in 1892 issued

a new regulation for the higher schools which naturally has influenced or will influence the other provinces.

In general, instruction in the German language in the higher schools of Prussia aims at giving fluency in both written and oral use of the mother-tongue, a knowledge of the most important epochs in the history of German poetry, in connection with what is being read, an awakening of the patriotic spirit thru the medium of German mythology and the most important (for the school) masterpieces of German literature.

As regards the reading, a difference must be made between class and private reading. The first deals with the subject as type, the last has for its object to draw out the individuality of the pupil under the influence of suggestion from the teacher. For the class reading a special collection of poems is used. They are presented in the lower and middle classes according to the following peculiar directions, which certainly do not show a great amount of psychologic insight. "Poems which are the subject of class reading in the lower and middle grades are to be read aloud by the teacher, after which difficulties in language and subject should be elucidated and the fundamental and subordinate ideas developed by the pupils. After another reading by the pupils the poem should be memorized and in the next lesson recited and discussed as a whole." If it excites surprise that such a special method should be introduced into the official order of instruction, the antiquated directions are even more astonishing. In the class reading for the higher grades are studied naturally such classical works as Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell*, *Jungfrau von Orleans*, *Wallenstein*, *Brant von Messina*; Goethe's *Hermann und Dorothea*, *Goetz von Berlichingen*, and *Iphigenie*. Students who are not studying Greek read Homer and the dramas of Sophocles translated into German. Those to whom English is not an obligatory study have German translations of Shakspeare's plays. The directions for presenting these works are so vague that I dare not undertake an explanation. However, the following sentences from observations on method may not be out of place: "Readings both in prose and poetry (study of Lessing is included) in all the grades aim at widening the

mental horizon of the students, and in the higher grades seek to invite discussion of the most important general conceptions and ideas. In the more advanced classes these often unfruitful exercises may be accompanied with an unconscious preparation for the study of philosophy."

The study of the grammatical construction of the mother-tongue is pursued in order that the student may have definite rules to guide him in doubtful cases and to aid the judgment in deciding upon peculiar modes of expression. These lessons should be confined to what is absolutely essential and should depend upon special examples. The treatment of German grammar in the same manner as that of a foreign language has been abandoned. Middle-High-German was also taught, but at present, at least in Prussia, this is no longer done. The pupils should be made familiar, by means of lectures, with the *Nibelungen Lied*, but instruction in Middle-High-German is confined to imparting isolated extracts from easy texts, which are read aloud and commented upon by the teacher. In addition to this, Middle-High-German affords but small opportunity for accustoming the pupil to elegant forms of expression, of which typical examples should be presented to him in the grammar lessons.

Composition writing, ordered to the capacity of each grade, should arise out of the subject-teaching. This, however, does not exclude compositions on general subjects in the advanced classes, provided their studies have afforded them sufficient preparation. Translations from foreign languages are also utilized for practice in writing the mother-tongue. Simplicity of style, especially in the construction of the sentences, is sought for, as is also insight into the paragraph construction of the foreign language.

In all cases and in all grades care is taken to cultivate the pronunciation and modes of expression. To this end, short, perfectly free talks, which have been prepared for in the class-work, are required of the advanced classes in what they have been reading.

CHRISTIAN UFER

ALTENBURG, GERMANY

VI

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS OF THE YEAR ¹

The task which has been assigned me is difficult in proportion to its brevity. It would not be impossible to set down in formidable array the main events of the year, at home and abroad, in the field of education, and, had the Council patience and adequate wakefulness, to recite them in its presence; but Homer's Catalogue of the Ships, over which no schoolboy has ever traveled except in morbid curiosity or in punishment, would be lively by comparison. For reasons, then, of comfort and convenience as well as those which rest upon a sense of relative values, I shall select for mention and brief criticism only those happenings which seem to me most to deserve the emphasis which will be laid upon them.

During the period under review there stand out prominently in the United States two series of events which are eminently characteristic of the tendencies and movements most manifest among us. These are the striking additions to the literature of education which have been made by Americans, and the study and constructive thought which have been devoted to the problems of public school organization and administration in large cities.

For two generations Americans have been writing and publishing books upon the theory and practice of education which were on too low an intellectual plane to meet the needs of to-day. They belonged to the literature of the camp-meeting rather than to that of the study. They were undeniably well-meant; on the whole, they did great good. But they were not nutritious as a steady diet. On their pages the obviously axiomatic jostled the eternally commonplace. There were exceptions, of course; but out of the fifty best known books on education which were published here between 1830 and 1890,

¹ A Report presented to the National Council of Education, at Los Angeles, Cal., July 10, 1899. Also printed in *The Outlook*, August 5, 1899

certainly more than two-thirds must be condemned as unscholarly. The reason is not far to seek. Scholarship and care for education as such were divorced. The colleges had rolled the Baconian half-truth, Knowledge is power, under their tongues so long that it made other condiment unnecessary. Meanwhile, the elementary schools and the normal schools were suffering from lack of that scholarship which only the colleges and the yet unborn universities could give. The scholars looked askance at the schools as something beneath them; the schools, unmindful of the fate of perpetual motion, undertook to live on their own scholarship alone. The results were not happy.

Now all this is changed. Dating perhaps from President Angell's success in 1879, in securing the foundation at the University of Michigan of the chair which has been successively occupied by Payne and by Hinsdale,² and from the elaborate presentation of education as a university subject made by President Barnard of Columbia in 1881 and again in 1882,³ the movement to bring the upper and the elementary schools together in mutual understanding and in a spirit of sympathy and co-operation began to gather headway. It grew rapidly, and in 1894, when the president of the oldest American university, one which had stoutly resisted the inroads of education upon it, made his notable address upon the "Unity of educational reform," pointing out clearly the fact that the same principles must govern educational effectiveness at whatever stage of development it is sought, the victory was won. For years before this President Eliot had himself been a conspicuous example of the new spirit, and now it has come to pass that that university which does not pursue education as energetically as it pursues physics or classical philology is no longer upon a pinnacle. Times have changed and most intelligent men have changed with them.

The most noteworthy feature of the educational literature of the year is its complete reflection of this new and inspiring point of view. It treats school topics with the seriousness,

² Payne, *Contributions to the science of education*, p. 337.

³ *Reports of the President of Columbia College*, 1881, p. 38-50; 1882, p. 51-65.

the care, the scientific method which mark the scholar. Homilies upon education have disappeared before the study of education. As a result we have the beginnings of an American literature of education which will be permanent.

It will not have escaped notice that during the past twelve months, or a little more, there have been books published by Mr. Eliot, by the late General Walker, by Mr. Gilman, by Mr. William James, by Dr. Münsterberg, by Dr. Hinsdale, by Mr. Thomas Davidson, by Miss Blow, by Bishop Spalding, and by Dr. Harris, which illustrate my meaning. Even the purely literary critic, accustomed to scorn the study of education or perhaps of anything except the speedy removal of one impression by another, will not hesitate to call this group of books remarkable. They are so remarkable that two decades ago they would have been impossible. Each book reflects the peculiar genius of its writer; taken together they give us a true picture of the forces and ideals which are moving our educational scholarship and grappling with our educational problems. Mr. Eliot's *Educational reform* ⁴ reveals the unfolding of a program of effort and achievement, framed thirty years ago, but broadening as it unfolds and gaining power in development. Its terse, virile English appeals directly to the heart as well as to the head of democracy. If every teachers' meeting and every institute to be held during the next year were to have read to it the address on "The function of education in democratic society," with which the volume ends, it would be time excellently spent, and the lives and the work of the teachers would surely show its influence.

General Walker's interest in education was both general and special, and his *Discussions in education* ⁵ faithfully represents this fact. He labored by word and by deed to organize manual training and technical education as they should be in a great, all-inclusive educational scheme like ours. He lived to see the institution over which he presided, tho sadly hampered thru lack of funds, recognized as the leader of its class. His statement of the argument for manual training

⁴ New York : The Century Co., 1898, 418 p., \$2.00.

⁵ New York : Henry Holt & Co., 1899, 342 p., \$3.00.

was everywhere held to be most cogent, and his policy of reform for the schools and colleges rang with the note of leadership.

The scope of Mr. Gilman's volume is narrower, as its title, *University problems*,⁶ indicates; and yet, just because of the many points of contact between the university of to-day and life, the several papers it contains are in no sense technical.

These three books are themselves enough to indicate that the higher education is assuming its share of responsibility for education as a whole, if there were no other evidence whatever. These books are in a class by themselves. All three are catholic, all three are in the true sense practical. Their authors are men whose lives have been spent in tracing practice upon the background of theory, and hence their books are an example as well as an exhortation.

Mr. William James, our master-craftsman in psychology; Dr. Münsterberg, whose welcome is the warmer because of our appreciation of his strenuous idealism; Dr. Hinsdale, who has for the first time set before us, with historical faithfulness, a picture of the great educational upheaval which Horace Mann brought about; Mr. Davidson, whose exposition of Rousseau is as fascinating as his exposure of the fallacies contained in the theories of that erratic genius is scathing; Miss Blow, with the simplicity of mastery in revealing the philosophy of Froebel; Bishop Spalding, with spiritual insight and sure literary touch; and Dr. Harris, with the subtlety and comprehension of thought which have taught us all, are the remaining writers on education who have made the year memorable.

Mr. James presents in the concrete⁷ his reply to the much-mooted question, how can psychology be made practically useful to the teacher? He does not argue; he demonstrates. At his hands mental life is all simplicity and naturalness, and we turn with satisfaction and delight to a book on psychology, both authoritative and readable, which can safely be put in the hands of the youngest teacher. It ought at once to drive

⁶ New York: The Century Co., 1898, 319 p., \$3.00.

⁷ *Talks to teachers on psychology*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1899, 301 p., \$1.50.

into the darkest corners the superficial and third-rate manuals of psychology which are so often pressed upon teachers, and which in their construction exemplify perfectly the motto made familiar by our journal of humor, *Life*, "Aut scissors aut nullus." Dr. Münsterberg's ⁸ book is of a different sort. It interprets life and life's interests in terms of psychology, and it interprets psychology in turn in terms of life. It is truly a great book. To be understood and appreciated it must be taken as a whole and viewed in its true light as a contribution to the world's philosophy. Dr. Hinsdale ⁹ and Mr. Davidson ¹⁰ take us by the hand thru the fields of history. They show us the beginnings and the meaning of much which is now current among us. The Boston schoolmasters of sixty years ago talked and acted very like their successors of to-day in New York, Chicago, and San Francisco. They had the same excellences and the same defects. History seems to be repeating itself, and we feel depressed. Not even Horace Mann's great nature seems able to move the dead-weight of tradition and of Bumbledom. But Mr. Davidson helps us to cheer up. What an attractive rogue Rousseau was! How influential and how absurd! What a dance he must have led the musty old pedagogs of Europe! It is all very fine and very amusing—at a century's distance. But we must not be caught with that chaff of his twice. Nowadays we ask rather severely what "education according to nature" means. According to whose nature? According to what nature? After listening politely to the answers of Rousseau's apostles of to-day we refuse to be convinced that nature means nakedness, and we continue to hold that man has made himself some intellectual and moral clothes during all these centuries.

Miss Blow, with happy insight, gives to her exposition of the philosophy of Froebel the title *Letters to a mother*; ¹¹ for the

⁸ *Psychology and life*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1899, 286 p., \$2.00.

⁹ *Horace Mann, and the common school revival in the United States*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons (Great Educators Series), 1898, 326 p., \$1.00.

¹⁰ *Rousseau, and education according to nature*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons (Great Educators Series), 1898, 256 p., \$1.00.

¹¹ New York: D. Appleton & Co. (International Education Series), 1899, 310 p., \$1.50.

mother only less than the child is the object of the kindergarten's influence and care. In her brilliant pages the same spiritual philosophy shines forth which Dr. Münsterberg uses to light up and explain life, the one with which Dr. Harris measures the breadth and the depth of the whole process called education. Bishop Spalding,¹² too, strikes the same note over and over again, and sends us away uplifted with the divine harmonies echoing in our souls. Dr. Harris sets himself the hardest task of all, and his accomplishment is stated in highly organized and systematic form. To many of us his *Psychologic foundations of education*¹³ is doubly precious, for it gathers up the spoken words which have so often meant so much and which we have sometimes feared might one day escape us. Here, set out in logical order, is the story of the mind's growth into the forms and the content of that human conquest which is civilization. It is difficult, no doubt, to follow the subtleties of the thought, but it is fascinating as well; and he who makes the thought his own has entered once for all the temple of philosophy.

Such, briefly described, are the volumes that make up the group which makes the year memorable. Nowhere in these books is there a note of pessimism or despair; nowhere is sounded the trumpet of revolution, nowhere is waved the red flag of anarchy. Neither human nature nor democratic institutions are given up for lost. All, on the contrary, are creative, hopeful; and all see a future full of promise. They have faith, and they impart it. I like to think that in this highly important respect they represent the best thought and the most widespread popular instincts of our time. With such an exposition of education as is theirs, all can hardly be lost.

Turning now to the second topic, I would point out that it is not accidental, by any means, that in the great cities of this country there is deep interest in questions of school organization and administration. This interest, so marked during the

¹² *Thoughts and theories of life and education*. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co., 1897, 236 p., \$1.00.

¹³ *Psychologic foundations of education*. New York; D. Appleton & Co. (International Education Series), 1898, 400 p., \$1.50.

past year, is a result in part of the newly roused municipal conscience which is reproaching us for inefficient, disorderly administration of a city's business, and in part of the growing importance, financial as well as other, of education as a public interest. The tax-payer's curiosity as to how his money is spent re-enforces the school reformer's demand that it be spent solely for the wisest training of the city's children. So it happens that New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, St. Louis, Baltimore, Buffalo, San Francisco, Milwaukee, Detroit, and Toledo—to mention only the most conspicuous instances—have all made or are making history on this subject. It is important not to overlook the one point in which they are all in agreement, for it is not unusual to attempt to minimize the movement for city school reform by calling attention to the wide variations of the detailed plans proposed for city school organization. That one point of agreement is the demand for efficiency. When a democracy earnestly demands efficiency in its servants, it has outgrown the swaddling-clothes of theory and is coming to years of discretion. It is plain to any careful observer that this demand for efficiency is now widespread in this country, and is by no means confined to the schools alone. It is heard in respect of the civil service, of the army, of governmental functions of all sorts. Why is there such widespread inefficiency in public-school administration? There is little or no actual dishonesty there; there is abundant earnestness; there is not a little skilled experience and special training. Only one answer is possible. The inefficiency is the result of the crystallization into system of traditions as to school government which are abreast neither of modern administrative machinery nor of the present condition of education itself. It is required nowadays that the machinery of education be simple, that power and discretion be definitely located in order that responsibility may be promptly and justly fixed. It is required that legislative functions be sharply distinguished from executive, that matters needing professional knowledge and experience for their proper disposition be intrusted to professional hands, and that the pressure of party pull and private push be relieved in all

possible ways by statutory provisions. The long but successful struggle to establish these conditions in New York, in the midst of great difficulties and against overwhelming odds, opened a new era. School reformers everywhere took courage, and there can be little question that the principles I have named will before long be established, no matter under what variety of detail, in every large city in the land.

During the year the storm-center of this disturbance has been over the city of Chicago. There the history of the New York movement is being repeated. A wholly admirable plan of reform has been outlined and formally proposed, and it has met with defeat at the hands of those who have most to gain from its adoption. It will be brought forward again, and perhaps be again defeated. It will be brought forward a third time, a fourth time, and then the fight will be won. When the modern, scientifically ordered system is in operation, those who are now resisting it so stoutly will marvel at the strength of the illusion which influenced them in so doing. In my judgment the report of the Educational Commission of the city of Chicago is the most exhaustive and the most authoritative contribution that has been made to the literature of city school administration, and is the one quite indispensable book of reference on the subject. I regard its conclusions and recommendations as almost unassailable, whether viewed from the standpoint of theory or from that of practice. It is a model of painstaking study and of scientific method. That it bears, as the first signature attached to it, that of a member of this Council is a source of pride to us all.

In this movement for the improvement of the conditions attending municipal school administration, it seems to me that two serious departures have been made from sound principles; and I am bold enough to predict that, unless corrected, their practical working will in time prove disastrous. One of these departures is that contained in the law governing the city of Milwaukee,¹⁴ by the provisions of which the appointment of members of the school board is intrusted to a bi-partisan commission of four, who are in turn named by the mayor. This

¹⁴ *Statutes of Wisconsin*, 1897, c. 186, Sec. 2.

is, on its face, a device for devolving the power of designating members of the school board upon a semi-judicial body removed one stage from the heated controversies of party politics. In reality, however, it interposes an authority between the school board and the mayor, who alone can be held directly responsible by the voters for his school-board appointments; and by attaching the bi-partisan principle to the constitution of this intermediate board, it suggests and rather emphasizes the fact that party politics should be considered in making school-board appointments. The Milwaukee law has other defects of detail, but this provision I believe to be a serious departure from sound principle, and one which should nowhere be imitated.

The second instance which I have in mind is contained in the new charter for San Francisco, soon to go into operation. Here we find two thoroly bad principles combined in one scheme: a bi-partisan school board and a paid school board, the members of which are required by law to give their entire time to the duties of their office. This is not only a departure from uniform American practice, but it is in flat contradiction to the principle which demands that the school board shall legislate only and that all executive duties shall devolve upon professional officers. The city superintendent is to sit in the San Francisco school board, as in that of New York, without the right to vote, but his legitimate duties are apparently to be divided with the paid school board, so that either confusion or inefficiency or trading and practical "deals" may be expected to follow. There is no excuse for a paid school board in an American city. Such a board can only be given work enough to occupy it by stripping the superintendent, the supervisors, the principals, and the business officers of the school system of their just powers and responsibilities. The ideal member of a school board is the representative professional man or man of affairs, who understands and reflects public sentiment, who is accustomed to act promptly on matters of large concern and with a broad outlook, and who will bring to problems of school policy and to the consideration of the recommendations of the professional officers of the board, a mature, well-bal-

anced judgment and an unbiased care for the highest public interest. Such men will not serve for pay, nor will they—nor should they—give all their time to the business of the schools. The San Francisco innovation is, I feel sure, a bad one. It is to be regretted, too, that the adoption of a new charter was not made the occasion for doing away with the custom, constitutionally prescribed, of electing the superintendent of schools by the voters at a municipal election, a custom peculiar to San Francisco and to Buffalo, and one which of necessity introduces into the choice of a superintendent influences and considerations which should never have a place there.

Despite these important exceptions, however, the general movement for improved city school administration has gone forward rapidly and in the right direction. The tendency to intrust professional duties to professional men and women and to protect them from political or personal influence in their exercise, is uppermost. That hotbed of politics and jobbery, the local committee system, is being done away with. The principal is emerging as a school official whose powers should be increased and his influence recognized. The great body of the teaching force, always suspicious of change and usually opposed to it, are gradually coming to see that the new administrative scheme means for them increased freedom from deadening routine, from outside pressure and influence, and that it makes for the power, the dignity, and the professional upbuilding of the teacher himself. In all these respects the year has been distinctly one of progress.

Let me turn now to the events of the year in the three great culture-nations whose life and thought most nearly touch and affect our own. One cannot help being struck by the fact that the long-delayed awakening of England to her educational duty and her educational opportunity is an accomplished fact. To begin with, it is important to know that we have now an authoritative book to turn to for accurate information regarding the organization of the many and diverse educational agencies which exist in England, and which puzzle so sorely the American student. This is Mr. Graham Balfour's *Edu-*

cational systems of Great Britain and Ireland,¹⁵ published during the year. The English *Educational review* has been revived, after a period of suspension, and two new journals of importance are trying their wings. These are *The School world*, devoted to secondary education, and *The Paidologist*—may it long survive its name!—having the study of children for its field, and gladly recognizing American influences in describing its origin and purpose.

I am most struck by the fact that the American college, as now constituted with its classical and its scientific courses side by side, is the type toward which there is a well-developed movement in England, an easily recognizable one in France, and a noticeable, tho as yet blind and unorganized, one in Germany. This is the meaning of the municipal colleges which are rapidly increasing in strength in England, and attracting to themselves new sources of support. Of these, Owens College, Manchester, is the best equipped, but University College, Liverpool, claims attention, particularly in America, because of its brilliant efforts to work out the problem of an academic organization in close relation to the needs of a great modern municipality. For example, it is at University College, Liverpool, that the first higher school of commerce has been established in Great Britain. It has many points of likeness with the collegiate course in commerce which is to be established in New York by Columbia University, thru the co-operation of the Chamber of Commerce. The new Midland University, to be established at Birmingham, largely thru the efforts of Mr. Chamberlain, has already received a generous gift from Mr. Andrew Carnegie, and is to devote much attention to applied science and to commercial and technical subjects. Not much progress can be reported relative to the teaching university for London. The statutory commission are hard at work upon plans for it, and some sources of opposition to the scheme seem to be disappearing. The Reading College, whose rapid growth and excellent work have just led to its affiliation to Oxford University, is really a demonstration of the vitality of the university extension movement

¹⁵ Oxford : Clarendon Press, 1898, 320 p., 7s., 6d.

in England, for it is in a sense the product of that movement.

Oxford and Cambridge are still institutions apart, with peculiar relations to the Church and to the class from which England's rulers have mainly been drawn. How long they will retain their prestige is, however, a matter of conjecture, for democracy is sweeping all before it in England, and the two older universities have not smiled either upon it or upon the new educational movement. It is not impossible that there will be a rude awakening one day for Oxford and Cambridge. Meanwhile, they are sadly in need of funds, for the long period of agricultural depression has cut down their income very greatly. Just now, happily, Oxford has received some large donations for the scientific library (Radcliffe) and to establish the readership in psychology to which Mr. Stout, the editor of *Mind*, has been appointed. Cambridge has made a public appeal for funds, and the response is encouraging, owing in large measure to the influence of the Duke of Devonshire, chancellor of the university.

The movement to bring some order out of the chaos of secondary education, to fix standards, and to make provision for proper oversight, goes slowly but steadily on. As everyone knows, the problems having their origin in secondary education are those which have most engaged the attention of students of education in England for some time past. The time has now come when actual legislation seems near at hand. But the complications, social, economic, ethical, and religious, are very great, and extreme caution in framing a measure for enactment into law which will command unqualified support is necessary. The country may be congratulated that at such a juncture the office of Lord President of the Council, to which falls the main parliamentary responsibility in the matter, is held by so judicious and so experienced a statesman as the Duke of Devonshire. He has already indicated the steps which seem to him important. The first is to form a competent central authority, so organized as to be able to guide educational opinion without coercing it. This is what the pending board of education bill proposes. If established, this

board of education will take the place of the existing central authorities for England and Wales. It is believed that the bill will become a law.

During the year a valuable mine of information has appeared in a parliamentary paper giving the results of an inquiry into the work and equipment of a selected list of secondary and high-grade elementary schools, the purpose being to throw light upon the relations which exist and those which should exist between elementary and secondary education. Despite the many and perplexing aspects of the question, peculiar to English conditions, it is safe to predict that the more this matter is studied the more clear will it appear that there is no fixed or definite line between elementary and secondary education, but that the one fades gradually and insensibly into the other. It is apparent that what hides this fact from English view is the existence of certain economic and social distinctions which do not enter into the same problem as it exists in the United States.

The wisest observers are agreed that as to elementary education the outlook in England is anything but satisfactory. This is in large measure due to the fact that public opinion, when not wholly apathetic, is sorely divided as to a number of fundamental principles which have long since established themselves securely in the United States. For this reason, perhaps, it is not infrequently said that an educational crisis is approaching in England, and Mr. Gladstone's prophecy that home politics for the next few years will center largely about education may be on the point of fulfillment. While it is true that large numbers of men and women in England are enthusiastic advocates of educational advance, yet it is also true that they have no formulated policy to urge and that there are opposed to them not a few influential critics who doubt whether the work done in the elementary schools is in any true sense educational and who believe that the nation cannot bear the crushing weight of the cost of making education universal and adequate. As a high authority writes in a personal letter: "Puzzlement, plus a crude idea of the essential importance of education, accompanied by a readiness to spend money in great masses rather

than to devote some hard thinking to the problems at issue, may be taken as a rough diagnosis of the present state of English public opinion on elementary education."

As in the United States, so in England, the rural school problem presents difficulties of its own. There the economic and taxing aspects of the question are quite as important as the purely educational. Nor do the resulting differences of opinion follow the usual party lines. Many Liberals, especially in the northern counties, believe in the local school board, as constituted by the act of 1870, as the best authority to control education. Other Liberals would make the school board subordinate to the town council, and virtually a committee of it. Everyone agrees that there is need of an authority to supervise elementary education over large rural areas, with powers analogous to those lodged in our State superintendents of public instruction; but there are endless disputes as to what this authority shall be. All these cross-currents of opinion and this tangle of interests combine to block any sweeping or radical change. Nevertheless, it seems clear that the elementary school-teachers, especially in the cities and towns, are gaining in efficiency, and that their interest in education is broadening year by year. Despite this, however, there is no denying the fact that there is widespread suspicion that the intellectual results of the work of the elementary schools are far from being as satisfactory as was confidently predicted a few years ago. Should this suspicion pass over into a conviction, the developments of the immediate future will be intensely interesting and very instructive to Americans.

The instinct which led General Kitchener to propose the establishment of a Gordon memorial college at Khartoum, which brought to the proposal the prompt support of the public opinion of Great Britain, and which caused Kipling to celebrate it in virile verse, is in the highest degree noteworthy:

For Allah created the English mad—
The maddest of all mankind!
They do not consider the Meaning of
Things; they consult not creed or clan.
Behold they clap the slave on the back
And behold he becometh a man!

They terribly carpet the earth with
Dead and before their cannon cool,
They walk unarmed by twos and threes
To call the living to school.

The appearance of three stout volumes, abounding in matter of interest and importance, from the newly established division of Special Inquiries and Reports in the Education Department, attests the wisdom of creating such a division, and of putting at its head as director so accomplished and efficient a man as Mr. Michael E. Sadler.

In France the reconstitution of the universities, accomplished in 1897, has removed them from the field of discussion, and questions of secondary education have come to the front with astonishing vigor. Publicists and men of affairs and of letters, as well as teachers, are participating in the very lively discussions which are now going on. These discussions center about the baccalaureate as established in 1808, the reform of which has been many times attempted. This degree is conferred by the university faculties as a result of examinations, conducted by them, upon the work done by the candidate in the secondary school. The importance of this diploma is very great, for it opens the way to most of the higher careers in France. What might have been expected has happened. The examinations for the baccalaureate have come to be an end, not a means; they dominate the whole course of secondary instruction and hang over it like a pall. It is now asked that far-reaching reforms be instituted, that the secondary schools hold examinations of their own for graduation; that a proper certificate be conferred for the satisfactory completion of the secondary-school course; that this certificate admit the holder to the universities, where the baccalaureate shall be conferred by the faculties upon the completion of a specified period of study under their direction. M. Combes, now senator, formerly minister of public instruction, has introduced a carefully drawn measure to effect those changes. The analogy between this condition in France and some educational troubles of our own will not escape the attention of the Council.

Because of the importance of this subject the Chamber of Deputies has instituted a commission of thirty-three members to make an exhaustive inquiry into the whole subject and to submit a report upon it. This inquiry will cover no small part of the field examined in this country by the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies, appointed by the National Educational Association in 1892, and that on the Relations between the Secondary Schools and Colleges appointed in 1895, and which is now ready to report. The president of the French commission is M. Ribot. Two former ministers of public instruction, M. Poincaré and M. Léon Bourgeois, have appeared before the commission to support the changes mentioned above as included in the proposed law of M. Combes, and to ask that the non-classical course in the secondary schools be recognized as fitting students to enter upon the study of law or of medicine, and also that a shorter, more practical, and less advanced course of secondary instruction be established side by side with the courses now existing. The mere mention of these suggestions is evidence that there is much in common between the aims and the methods of those who in France and in the United States are striving to broaden secondary education and to extend its influence. It is worth while to call attention to M. Bertrand's *L'Enseignement intégral*,¹⁶ published during the year, which touches not a few of the topics in dispute, and advances constructive suggestions regarding them.

The year in Germany has not been eventful, tho a few happenings deserve passing mention. In the Prussian parliament the minister of agriculture, von Hammerstein, raised a storm by his sharp attack on the elementary schools, in the course of which he charged that they were doing the agricultural interests of the country an injury by leading pupils away from agriculture toward the trades, business, and the professions. The minister of education, Bosse, replied with vigor, but without satisfying his colleague. More will be heard of the matter in the near future, and some important action may be taken in regard to it.

¹⁶ Paris : F. Alcan, 1898, 313 p., 7 fr. 50 c.

More important by far is the growing recognition in Germany of the importance of the social aspects of education. Professor Natorp of Marburg in his *Sozial-pädagogik*,¹⁷ has made a very valuable contribution to the literature of this subject, and one which deserves attention in the United States. The insight which sees in education the inter-working of the individual and the influences which have shaped the social whole, and which therefore seeks light in the study of *Culturgeschichte*, receives strong support from Natorp, whose book may be safely singled out as the most striking German publication of the year on educational theory. In his *Herbart, Pestalozzi und die heutigen Aufgaben der Erziehungslehre*,¹⁸ a book made up of lectures delivered at Marburg during the summer of 1898, Natorp has made another contribution of importance. It is in the form of the liveliest possible attack on Herbart's philosophy as the basis for an education theory, and it has already roused Willman, Flügel, Just, and Rein to vigorous replies. The controversy is of more than academic importance to American students of education, who have themselves recently passed thru a similar debate.

The drawing together of teachers whose work and interests, superficially viewed, lie far apart, is much needed in Germany, and a promising beginning has lately been made in Greifswald under the leadership of Professor Rehmke of the university. The establishment of the *Zeitschrift für pädagogische psychologie*, edited by Dr. Kemsies of Berlin, marks the advance in Germany of a movement already well under way in the United States.

It seems on the whole apparent that the year has been one not of change only, but of progress. The conviction of the importance of real education is stronger than ever before, and the efforts to attain it are more widespread and more earnest. That questions of educational organization and administration should be everywhere most prominent just now is significant of the importance of the demand for efficiency and effective-

¹⁷ Stuttgart : Frommann's Verlag, 1898, 352 p., 6 M.

¹⁸ Stuttgart : Frommann's Verlag, 1899, 96 p., 3 m.

ness as well as of the readjustment of the entire educational scheme to the present needs and capacities of the public. These matters are as important in their way as topics touching education on the more philosophical side are in theirs. The conception of education as a process based on the history of civilization, and making demands upon the whole power of the community as well as upon the entire capacity of the child, is not now seriously challenged. This conception of education alone stands the test both of experience and of philosophical scrutiny. It is the characteristic insight of the closing years of the nineteenth century. It remains for the twentieth to apply it in all its fullness.

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VII

DISCUSSION

PARENTS' MEETINGS

The movement toward unity of home and school, which has appeared of late in the form of parents' meetings, is but a modern expression of the spirit which pervaded this country in the early years; it is another manifestation of the same spirit which made each little schoolhouse second only in importance to the church, and which linked the name of the schoolmaster with that of the parson in every community. The conditions of our modern life are so different from those of the past that, altho we have been continually increasing our educational resources we have perhaps been losing something which gave vitality to education in former years. Our public-school system, which in its infancy was the offspring of a deep and earnest conviction of the people, has grown and developed, until it sometimes seems to have lost the essence of freedom, instead of being the living force which was the ideal of its conception. This being the case, parents were for a time indifferent to the child's best interests and came to look coldly upon the school and to isolate themselves from it.

That such a condition is contrary to the full development of the child, and of the school and the community, is evident at a glance. The organization of parents' meetings is a step toward that unity of spirit and action which is essential to the success of the most ordinary enterprise, and especially to the successful discharge of a trust so sacred as the development of a human soul. A series of such meetings has been held in School No. 3 in Yonkers, N. Y., and they have resulted in establishing a permanent organization connected with that school. A brief report of what is being done there may prove interesting and helpful to others.

In conducting these meetings we have considered every-

thing as secondary which does not pertain to the main thought—child-study. It is not our purpose to entertain, but to confer with the parents upon topics of vital interest to the child. Some of the subjects discussed have been the following: What ought the public school to do for the child? The child's duty in civic questions; Ought the discipline of the child at home and school to conform? Children's imaginings and untruthfulness; Habit and physical basis of character. These questions have been very generally discussed by the parents, and so responsive have been those who were present that the evening has passed before all who desired had an opportunity to speak. Our special aim has been to have the parents feel that we not only invited but *needed* their individual co-operation.

Our school is situated in a neighborhood where a majority of the parents have many demands on them socially; for this reason one can better appreciate the interest manifested in these gatherings when one learns that the Assembly Hall, which seats over four hundred people, was completely filled at the last meeting. This may well be emphasized, because it is more difficult, in certain respects, to appeal to the class of people upon whom social demands are many, as they are prone to look upon the public-school teacher as capable of doing but one thing, and that is to teach. If we can eradicate this impression in the half-hour's reception which precedes the meeting, we shall not only dignify the profession, but we shall also allay any fears that the parent may have for the development of the social and ethical side of his child's nature.

Some of the advantages which have been experienced as a result of these meetings are the following: First in importance are the benefits to the child. Seeing his parents in harmonious conference with the school, he at once feels himself subject to a united instead of a divided authority. The child's mental aptitude is more accurately estimated by the teacher, when seen at home, where he is outside the necessary confinement of the classroom and where spontaneity has full play. The child's increased confidence and happiness in feeling that the teacher is his friend more than the friend of

the class in general is another beneficial result. With the young and weak the sense of close personal sympathy is important beyond measure, for only that which touches them can find admission to their narrow world.

In the second place the advantages to the teacher are hardly less in importance. A better acquaintance with the parent is often, for the teacher, a revelation of the child's character and environment—a knowledge of which is as essential to her as light is to a sculptor, for she too, molds a plastic material. A broader knowledge of the problems of life, culled from the rich experience and the wider culture of some of the parents, is likewise a beneficial result, and a better understanding of the teacher's moral obligations and opportunities, as combined with the parent's, can but be a necessary consequence and a decided gain.

Furthermore, as many persons have not had opportunity to become acquainted with the growing tendency to work upon a psychological basis, these meetings have contributed much toward giving parents an insight into this phase of the teacher's work, and this has helped to make them more keenly aware of the difference between the former and the present methods of education. In many cases there has been a consequent awakening to the fact that child-study is not alone for the pedagogue and man of science, but that it is a most practical study, a few pages of which the parents themselves have been reading every day in the first and fullest volume ever written upon the subject—the living child.

A parent, moreover, may come to these meetings not wholly satisfied with the administration of affairs. After listening to contrary opinions frankly expressed on the particular points, by four or five others whose influence and position appeal to him and whose judgment he respects, or the greater correctness of whose views he is brought to recognize—such a parent has generally been found to go away with a clearer insight into the matter, and with the feeling that he has been looking at the problem in an obscure light owing to his own lack of information on the subject. On the other hand, if faults actually exist or real shortcomings be

recognized as needing correction or consideration, a better opportunity is given to parents to confer with the teacher and for all to unite in furthering the common cause and in contributing to the general advantages.

It may appear a somewhat laborious task to endeavor to discover the individual character of the district as a whole and the particular individuality of the parents and children, and thus to proceed to operate from the standpoint of the individuality according to the laws of development. Such a method of procedure does require exertion, it is true, but there is not the wear and tear in it that occur in the blind battle of forces which are not known, but whose operation is none the less apparent. The exertion involved in the effort is the very exercise that gives the teacher development for his reward; it is exercise that makes him great and strong instead of wearing him out. He then has the teacher's highest recompense—the intense satisfaction of seeing his little army moving onward, united and with uniform step, toward success. Surely the possibility of such a reward ought to nerve the teacher to any amount of exertion needed to master the situation. These possibilities are not confined to one district; they exist in all, and parents' meetings, if rightly conducted, will be found, it is believed, to contribute in abundant measure to advancing the common cause of education.

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VIII

REVIEWS

Method in history—By WILLIAM H. MACE, Professor of History in Syracuse University. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1898. xvii+311 p. \$1.00.

The last decade or two witness an increase in the study of history. From elementary instruction to the final polish and perfection of the candidate for a doctorate, historical teaching is being analyzed with much vigor and penetration as to its aim, method, and worth. As a result a number of treatises have recently appeared essaying to solve some of these many problems. But almost as many have made the mistake of attempting too much, or of attempting to do the wrong thing. As a consequence, the work has been either too formal to be of use, or too superficial and scattering in suggestions to produce thoughtfulness and a consistent practice. Professor Mace has not erred in this respect. He seems to have selected a definite problem, set it before him in great clearness, and worked it out with exceptional tact and discrimination. His ideal is organization, his subject institutional growth, his field the United States, and his motive practical service to the student and teacher of history. This limited and definite conception, followed up with rhetorical skill, logical strictness, and historical sagacity, has proved itself as beneficial as it was wise and beneficent.

Another interest of a significance even broader than history teaching has been growing during the same general period with surprising rapidity; broader because it relates to each of the main school subjects. I refer to the present widespread and wholesome tendency of many university men to participate in the work and life of elementary schools. This co-operation is a most hopeful sign. The greatest service of the university specialist to public schools naturally takes on the form of suggestions and problems pertaining to his own peculiar field. It has done so in this contribution of Professor Mace. He has

come to his task with superior qualifications. His preparation makes this book particularly trustworthy. Once a common-school teacher, then a normal-school man, later a student of history and philosophy in universities of America and Germany, now an experienced professor, in addition possessing rare teaching instincts, Dr. Mace is by nature and training exceptionally fitted to assist teachers in elementary work. His book indicates his efficiency and is a worthy example of what other university men, similarly equipped, should do for elementary teaching of other studies.

He manifests full knowledge of the precise lack common to history teaching, a clear insight as to the nature of the idea which should control in the process of revision, and no uncertainty in respect to the desirable modifications in matter and method of customary presentation of United States history.

This book is an exponent of a peculiar idea of method and, as such, is a pioneer. For many years now, educational thinkers have been trying most assiduously to develop a psychology of learning, with the hope that we might get at method thereby. Usually this attempt has not been carried on in direct connection with any one school subject, and the results, as a rule, have been left in the air. Writers of another kind, while not treating the cause of method so seriously and scientifically, have allowed themselves to be influenced by the peculiar needs of given school studies. Generally, however, these have concerned themselves with mere mechanics of construction. They were mainly interested in means, in devices, apparatus, etc. The reactions, sequences, and continuity in the pupil's mental life were apparently matters of less moment. In history teaching our interests have been led too much into the considerations of the character of charts, outlines, diagrams, and means of like kind. The continuity of the developing consciousness neither in the pupil nor in the subject of study became the *raison d'être* of a work on method in history.

Dr. Mace starts with a radically different point of view. Unless this fact be appreciated his work will come short of its highest mission. His guiding ideal is set forth in a quotation from W. A. Jones, "The law in the mind and the thought

in the thing determine the method." One who runs may read but is not likely to grasp the full import of this tersely put and most soundly conceived philosophy of method. The compactness of the expression stands in direct contrast to the expansive potentiality of the thought therein expressed. And to get this thought alone, the reading of *Method in history* by a teacher of any subject is unquestionably justifiable.

Overlooking, therefore, the "external manipulation" of instruction and treating only implicitly the general laws of learning, the author has given us a genuine survey of the psychical process involved in learning United States history. To him, method is a far more fundamental thing than the means and modes of stimulating and directing pupils. It pertains to the fundamental conditions and considerations which determine the classroom procedure; to the starting-points, steps, and stages, together with their proper sequences, corresponding to the growing historical consciousness in the mind of the learner; and to the cultural material itself, its selection and arrangements, its educative possibilities and processes. On such a conception only can really progressive and scientific understanding and presentation of history be based. Continuity and orderly progress in real history condition, in part, the continuity and progress in the ideal history undergoing construction in the mind of the student. Thus method is a creature of one's joint conception of history in fact and history in thought. The concurrent processes, therefore, on the one hand of actual history and on the other of imaginative history, the only one possible to the student, are the central and organizing fact of this unique book. The inherent and unmodifiable nature of the two should determine the movement of thought both in the recitation and in the course of study.

The introduction contains an important suggestion for educational schools, and the book itself is a worthy model of the kind of work now needing more emphasis in both normal schools and teachers' colleges. Let us look at the situation found in such schools.

Proceeding on the ground that they need to look after both the academic and professional training, one customarily finds the following state of affairs: (a) The presence of many non-

professional courses in professional schools; (b) the treatment of the educational aspect of a subject, divorced entirely from its academical treatment; (c) the professional phase of the work is, therefore, not unfrequently put into the hands of some person other than the specialist who is responsible for the subject in its academic phase; and (d) the presence of many teachers who have little more educational interest, if any, than the teachers of other schools. These conditions are objectionable from many points of view, and if any one of them obtains for a long time in a school, it must be on the ground of a necessary, unideal expedient. The cure for this, according to the suggestion of Dr. Mace, would be to make all necessary work in professional schools, professional. He says, "In a normal school the study of language, history, or mathematics ought to be, and can be, made as strictly professional as the study of psychology." "The essential nature of geography is just as important a factor in determining the method of learning and teaching geography as is psychology." Why not? Should not the general view of mind "be approached thru the medium of the subject, which is mind in its concrete form"? The reviewer is not at all certain that Professor Mace has not, thru the example of his book, made out a strong case against the practice of some of our best normal schools. The facts are that much of our teaching of educational psychology is ineffectual except in so far as it assists general culture, and that our educational doctrine is often widely separated from our practice.

The movement in a study from one stage to another depends on the nature and ability of the pupil and the character and capability of the subject. The value of instruction is conditioned upon the character of adjustment of these two factors of method. Dr. Mace believes therefore that the educational worth of a subject is to be, at least in part, derived from "a critical analysis of the processes stimulated and products created in the learning mind." He attempts, in his book, to demonstrate how this is to be worked out in United States history. It is obvious from this general position that the educational process, from first to last, embodies, when most efficiently carried on, more than is usually planned for in the

training of a teacher. In history it demands (1) an appreciation of the social worth of the study, what it has done and is capable of doing for society thru the individual; (2) an insight into the psychical processes which the individual must be led thru in order to achieve this social worthfulness; (3) the extent to which history can be made to yield profitable results in different school years; and (4) the distinction and relative values of various phases and fields of history for the different stages of developing consciousness. If this analysis is correct, then certain practical considerations are more or less evident: (1) That methods in a special study should be elaborated by a specialist in that study, (2) that the specialist should be a close student of the different phases of child-life in its relation to his subject, and (3) that in a twofold relational study of this kind only can a real method in any subject be rightly developed. Dr. Mace's book has taken a long step forward in meeting this requirement; he has not, however, gone all the way. When his point of view is appreciated, normal-school men will see need for a reorganization of much of their work, and university men will see the public schools' demands upon them more strongly than they have hitherto. Then it may be expected that courses in history, literature, science, and art, similar in organization to this of Professor Mace's, will be given in all our larger universities.

In accord with his philosophy the author sticks close to materials of history. He opens by discussing the fundamental concepts of history and the science of history. He devotes 76 pages to the general nature of history, after which, in 178 pages, he sets forth the organization of the periods of American history. Under this the more special headings are: Period of the growth of the Union, period of the development of nationality, nationality and democracy, nationality and slavery. Following this comes the second main division of the book in fifty-six pages devoted to the elementary phases of history teaching. It consists of three sub-divisions pertaining to the sense phase of history, the representative phase of history; and history books for young people.

Little value would arise out of any unfavorable detailed comment on this book, did one feel competent to make any.

The only observation of the kind which I have to offer is inserted with some misgivings, not because the point in itself does not seem important, but that it may be holding the author responsible for what he should not be so held.

The term method may have received too narrow an interpretation. If this be true, certain more or less significant consequences may be pointed out. For the book as a whole method seems to be used to designate the order or ordering of the materials of instruction in the adult mind. This view emphasizes "the logical relations of the subject-matter itself," rather than the procedure of the unfolding mind that is to work upon it. Emphasis is placed upon this genetic view of the historical consciousness in the second division. This idea of method, it may be said, pertains to the curriculum, while the former relates more especially to a course. But, in addition, may not one ask if the term method should not be applied to the movement of the mind in the development of a lesson, whether it be a lesson of one or more recitations? Is there not a beginning, an end, and a middle-point in the process of a lesson-unfolding which should be characterized and set forth in a finished method of history?

The book, as it stands, leaves it to the teacher to determine the characteristics of this lesson-method. Of what should a lesson consist? How should the study work be introduced; then how proceed? What should be the nature of the mental movement at the close of the lesson, as distinguished from that of the opening? In connection with this omission, which was probably intentional, the author sets aside as foreign to his purpose any discussion of the so-called "methods" of thought awakening and development. It may be properly asked of the author, how does it happen that "the determining factors in method" have not determined the procedure, in so far as individual lessons go, or isn't it a matter of importance? Perhaps this is an unsolved problem. But connected with this omission is a still weightier matter. The thought movement of a lesson, to proceed with the desired clearness, warmth, and interest, and to end with a sense of its practical import and with increase of skill in everyday judgment of affairs, should emphasize, more than his book seems to have planned for, the

social experiences and environment of the pupils. It must not be overlooked that the chief purpose in history study is an accurate conception of the present. Dr. Mace does not overlook it; he simply does not give it the place which a writer on method in the recitation might assign it. An account of history teaching which pertains to this aspect of method, and recognizes its full function, would naturally plan to bring history in relation to the present more directly and frequently than a method in a course of history or method in a historical curriculum can do alone.

Perhaps the most valuable by-product of this book arises from its psychological character. This fact is of unusual significance these days when so much is written about the valuelessness of psychology to a teacher. If this inestimable work had done nothing more than demonstrate the need of psychological thinking of history by teachers of history it would have won a right to a most respectful recognition by readers of strong books. One can hardly peruse its pages at all carefully without feeling the close correlations of psychology and methodology of history. Mental science aids in the discrimination and interpretation of the raw materials of history. Why not? History, in its primal conditions, is nothing but the expressions of mind. Again, it assists in the understanding and following of the scientist as he works up his materials. This, too, seems obvious, for the essentials of his work are nothing but the mind thinking and organizing these materials. Furthermore, psychology should help the teacher to conceive and respond to, properly, the various steps and stages through which the historical consciousness of every individual child passes before he puts away childish things and begins to think as a man. And, lastly, it should add to his ability to deduce from principles and to detect in experiences those plans and procedures of his own thought and action, as a teacher of history, which yield the best results. History teaching involves this fourfold insight and psychology can contribute to its development. In a work of this nature, teachers of history and psychology in normal schools ought to find suggestions for correlative effort. Nor is the significance of these suggestions limited to teachers of history and psychology alone. Other

studies of the training-school curriculum need to get nearer to psychology and psychology nearer to them. It is too great isolation that in large measure allows psychology to remain comparatively inefficient.

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COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

A brief introduction to modern philosophy—By ARTHUR KENYON ROGERS, Ph. D. New York : The Macmillan Company, 1899. viii, 358 p. \$1.00.

A more appropriate title for this little work would be "Outlines of philosophy," for it does not deal with general philosophical encyclopedia (general introduction) nor give a comprehensive comparison and elucidation of the competing philosophical systems (special introduction), but presents in brief compass the principal points in the system of metaphysics adopted by the author. This plan was chosen by Dr. Rogers, as he tells us in his Preface, in order to escape the lack of unity and of positiveness which is apt to result from a mere objective cataloging of the various philosophical problems and the solutions which may be offered for them. At the same time, the book does not claim to be complete; ethics, psychology, and logic are expressly omitted from the discussion (p. 19) tho the second and third of these receive incidental treatment, in order to center the argument about the fundamental metaphysical principles, which these, as all other disciplines, imply (p. 19-20).

As a result of this method of treatment, the Introduction becomes a brief treatise on metaphysics and epistemology written from a selected philosophical standpoint. Most of the chapters (Dualism, pantheism, and theism; Materialism and subjective idealism, Rationalism and sensationalism) are devoted to topics and movements in philosophy rather than to the work of individual thinkers; but the two which depart from the rule (Kant and Hegel) are written with the same end in view, the development and enforcement of the opinions which the author, with great modesty but also with firmness, urges as the only true and hopeful form of philosophical speculation. The nature of this system is best

indicated by the title of the last chapter but one, "Theistic idealism." If we discard the agnostic conclusion, then, "it is the verdict of philosophy that in idealism of some sort and fashion, and in idealism alone, is there any hope of finding a solution whose failure is not a foregone conclusion" (p. 269); and "the essential feature of an idealistic philosophy consists in this, that the ultimate reality which constitutes the universe is conceived after the analogy, at least, of a conscious life" (p. 269).

The idealism thus advocated is, naturally, not the Berkeleyan, but metaphysical, idealism. On the other hand, it is not the idealism which conceives ultimate reality as an unconscious spiritual process, hence not the idealism of the left wing, but one which is emphatic in ascribing some sort of conscious life to the world-ground, as it also insists on construing the absolute in closest relation with individual life. Moreover, conscious life is activity. In accordance, therefore, with the trend of recent thinking, the conception of the world must be dynamic rather than static. In this way Dr. Rogers arrives at an idealistic metaphysic which, if we may venture to compare it with any one of the classical systems, may be termed Fichtean rather than Hegelian. At the same time, it is not a mere return from the later to the earlier mode of thinking, but a development under influences proceeding in many instances from the progress of life and thought subsequent to the classical period. In this connection may be mentioned the emphasis given to the concrete, the empirical, even the sensationalistic elements in thought and existence, the anxious endeavor to avoid pantheistic conclusions, the appreciation, tho still an imperfect one, of the incongruity of abstract intellectualism and the spiritual interests of life.

The value of Dr. Rogers's volume to the teacher will depend largely upon the latter's point of view. The book is fluently, not to say, hastily written; it succeeds in expressing in language level to the popular mind many of the most abstruse philosophical principles, but does not always avoid the correlative defects of incomplete and inadequate statement. Hence it would be easy to take exception to some of the particular discussions (the chapter on "Rationalism and sen-

sationalism " is confused, the last chapter on " Skepticism and the criterion of truth " falls below the rest in point of strength), and to several of the interpretations of systems and opinions (*e. g.*, the statement of objections to the customary theistic arguments, p. 53-58; the interpretation of Hegel's view of experience in chapter vi). And altho the type of idealistic speculation represented is not unfamiliar, it is difficult to repress the query concerning the possibility on the one hand of escaping the historical tendency of idealism to degenerate into a pantheistic or even materialistic view of the universe, and on the other, of fusing with it the saving factors which Dr. Rogers has so much at heart. On the whole, however, the instructor of idealistic leanings will find in this little treatise a valuable aid in his work; and the adherents of other systems a popular exposition to which they may refer their pupils with advantage.

A. C. ARMSTRONG, JR.

WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY

IX

EDITORIAL

Honorary Ph. D. Degrees

The newspapers report that the following degrees of doctor of philosophy, *causâ honoris*, were conferred at the close of the last academic year :

Franklin and Marshall College—J. Watts De Peyster, of New York

Lafayette College—Richard C. Chism, of Mexico ; Porter Shimer, of Easton, Pa.

The New College Presidents

Four of the most important college presidencies to which we made reference some time ago have now been filled, and so satisfactorily filled that it is a matter of rejoicing. It seems to us that Presidents Hadley of Yale, Harris of Amherst, Faunce of Brown, and Wheeler of California were the best selections possible, taking into account the peculiar traditions and problems of each of the four institutions and the personal equation of the man chosen to preside, we hope for at least a quarter of a century, over the teaching body of each. Three of the four men are successful and experienced teachers, and the fourth is a clergyman whose teaching instinct is very strong and whose relations to education have been very close. In these elections the recently exploited newspaper theory that a large college needs a business man or a money-getter for president has received a set-back and a severe rebuke. We can imagine few things worse for higher education in the United States than to have the spirit of commercial trading and the business man's point of view obtain strong foothold in it. "Business methods" have debauched and are debauching politics on every hand, and the treasure house of education must be protected from their inroads at all hazards. The idealism which American life so sorely needs must be furnished in large part by the universities, and the two last questions for their gov-

erning boards to be taught to ask are, Is it "timely"? and Will it pay?

Moreover, the typical business man cannot, in the nature of the case, be successful in such a post. His standards of success are the reverse of educational. Underneath the temporary appearance of external prosperity which such a president might bring there is almost certain to be the dry rot of educational neglect. The more important the college or the university the more surely it needs expert educational supervision. For this there is no possible substitute. Like a city school system, a college or university needs someone in its administration who knows and understands its educational activity in every part, who can distinguish real teaching from sham teaching, and the force of whose personal inspiration will be felt in every department. Those who remember the administration of President McCosh of Princeton well understand what this means.

The four new presidents are men of this type. They are men of strong personality, and each will leave his mark for good upon the institution which has honored him. All four are, in a large sense, men of affairs, and may be expected to relate their institutions more closely than ever to the life and thought of the time. This new impulse is particularly needed at Yale, where what we believe to be an unfortunate and dangerous policy of educational isolation has long been pursued. To overcome that isolation and to restore Yale to its legitimate place as a progressive educational influence are likely to be two of the most noteworthy achievements of President Hadley's administration.

**Education and
Industry**

It is greatly to be regretted that so much of the testimony taken before the Industrial Commission, now sitting at Washington, as relates to education in its bearing upon industrial conditions, cannot be widely circulated thru the newspaper press of the country; for it is of the highest importance that intelligent men and women should be familiar with the facts there brought out. The present Commissioner of Education, for instance, has for many years been a searching student of those facts and figures which throw light upon the borderland between educa-

tion and economics, and in his testimony before the Industrial Commission in January last, he marshaled the evidence in support of his contentions with great force. Dr. Harris brought out with startling clearness the economic results of illiteracy, and the industrial advantage which accrues to the community in which all of the inhabitants can read and write. He also demonstrated the gain to the United States which resulted between 1870 and 1890 from the expansion and diversification of industries, which drew off one-fifth of the farming population into other forms of employment. The Commission were given the evidence to prove that general education, manual and technical training will do more to promote individual and national prosperity than any number of the nostrums and isms to which so many persons thoughtlessly give adherence. Dr. Harris's entire testimony, and the statistical tables which accompany it, are of unique value.

**Public Education
Associations**

The activity of the Public Education Associations in New York, Philadelphia, Brookline, Mass., and elsewhere has attracted attention all over the country, and from time to time we hear of similar bodies springing up elsewhere. The good which such associations can do in promoting a community feeling for education and a community interest in it is incalculable, and it is therefore a satisfaction to know that the conferences between representatives of these organizations have grown into a permanent bond of union. The association which has been formed is to be known as the Conference of Eastern Public Education Associations, which will hereafter hold an annual meeting in the interest of the work which these invaluable associations have undertaken.

**Elective Studies
in Secondary
Schools**

In the midst of so much theoretical discussion of the important and interesting question of elective studies in secondary schools, it is worth while to direct attention to so capital a statement of the practical working of an elective system as is given in his last annual report by Superintendent James H.

Van Sickle of the Denver (North Side), Colo., schools. From this high school it will be noticed the graduation depends wholly upon work accomplished, and not at all upon the length of time devoted to the work. The organization of the manual training instruction has been, from the beginning, exactly that urged before the Harvard Teachers' Association in March last, by Mr. James P. Munroe.¹

"Public high schools are not primarily college preparatory schools. They cannot in justice to the majority of their students bend their chief energies in this direction. The number of high-school graduates who go to college is small compared with the number who end their school life with graduation from the high school; very small indeed compared with the number who enter the high school but who for various reasons can secure the time for only a part of a regular course.

Our high school graduated its first class in 1886. In June, 1899, it will graduate its thirteenth class. No class was graduated in 1889. The first class numbered six, the last class numbers fifty. Of the 236 graduates forty-six have either gone to college or are intending to go. This number is slightly less than one-fifth of the whole number graduated. It would evidently be unfair to base our course of study wholly on the needs of less than 20 per cent of our pupils. But if there is a plan which will meet their needs while giving equal opportunity to others to get what is best for them it would seem to be a reasonable thing to do. For several years such a plan has been in operation in this high school.

The course of study is largely elective, one year's work in each of the following subjects being required: language, mathematics, science, history, and English. This is slightly more than one-third of the course. If a pupil has a specific aim in mind, he can so select his work, with the advice of parents and teachers, that it will include those things most helpful in his chosen calling.

Since the requirements for admission to different colleges vary greatly, it is important that pupils intending to go to college should ascertain the requirements for admission to their chosen institutions early in the course; at the latest by the beginning of the second year. If a pupil does this, his course will be a college preparatory course so planned as to secure the end with the least possible waste of time. If a pupil desires to enter the School of Mines, he will make a choice different in several particulars from that of the pupil who wishes to pursue a classical course at the State University. If he neglects this till late in the course he is almost sure to find that he has done more than is required in some directions and less in others. Choice of studies is always made with the advice of parents and principal. The attitude of pupils toward study has changed remarkably since they have had some voice in the selection. The tasks, being self-imposed, are undertaken cheerfully. Artificial incentives are less needed. There seems to be developed some genuine enthusiasm for knowledge.

¹ EDUCATIONAL REVIEW (May, 1899) 17: 450

A habit of vigorous and sustained effort is the best preparation for business and industrial pursuits as well as for college work. The habit of dawdling, taking an hour for work that ought to be turned off in thirty minutes, is the worst possible preparation for anything. Recognizing these facts, the Board of Education, four years ago, established a standard for graduation other than time spent in school. They wished to provide the fullest opportunity for the pupil of marked ability and industry to push his work in school forward as he will later be expected to push his work in the community, whatever that work may be. At the same time they wished to avoid hurrying the pupil who for any reason, physical or mental, ought not to move at so rapid a pace.

Pupils are admitted to the high school from the highest grammar grade at the beginning of each half year, in September and January. At the close of each half year every pupil receives a certificate showing the subjects successfully pursued and the number of periods per week devoted to each. Failure in any study does not mean going back a year. It means a half year's review of that one study. In all other studies the pupil goes on with advanced work.

A point is the credit given for one recitation per week for a half year.

When a pupil whose conduct has been satisfactory, and who has maintained an average not lower than "good" in all of his studies, has received certificates showing 144 or more points credited to him, he may receive a diploma of graduation showing all the subjects successfully pursued and the time given to each.

It will be seen that the time element is by the above plan no longer of chief importance, but the standard set is the more rational one of work accomplished. Ability and industry meet the same natural reward in school as in life generally.

The time required to complete a course depends upon the number of studies carried. Three subjects in which five recitations per week occur, together with some work in music, drawing, gymnastics, and manual training, constitute, for most pupils, full work. This allotment will enable a pupil to graduate in four years. Some pupils ought to take less work than this, some ought to take more. Graduation may be attained, then, whenever the conditions set by the board have been met, whether the time be three and a half years, four, or four and a half or five. Since graduation is conditioned upon quality as well as upon quantity of work, the temptation to select more studies than can be satisfactorily carried is reduced to the minimum.

Getting away from tradition is a slow process. It has so long been held that four years, no more, no less, was just the time required to complete a high-school course that it is not strange that some should at first fail to see that it is quite as worthy of honor to accomplish a certain result in three and a half years as in four.

The attitude of the Board of Education on this matter is shown by the following resolution passed unanimously April 13, 1899, instructing the high-school faculty as to the basis of selection to be observed in the choice of the nine pupils to appear on the commencement program:

"Resolved by the Board of Directors of School District No. 17 that,

whereas the present course of study of the high school does not prescribe a time limit for graduation, but instead, certain conditions as to conduct, quantity and quality of work ; all who have complied with said conditions are equally entitled to consideration in deciding special appointments."

Three of the nine selected on the basis of merit from a class of fifty are among those who finish the course in less than four years. Most of the three and a half year graduates as well as a large majority of the four year graduates have to their credit points far in excess of the number required. In fact, four of those who graduate in three and one-half years and thirteen of those who graduate in four years had complied with the conditions for graduation one-half year ago and might have claimed their diplomas in January. They remained, not for the diploma nor for the points, it is evident, but because of higher aims. Education seems to be the motive rather than any desire for rewards such as are represented by ordinary school incentives.

This has been the design of the entire plan. There are other indications that it is being realized. It is very important for a pupil to know that the promotion certificates given him on his promotion from one grade to another, and even the diploma at the end of the high-school course, do not indicate anything more than the passing of a certain stage of education. Education is a life work. It is but just begun in school. The school is a place highly favorable to education. It is not the only place, but it is a good place if well conducted and well used."

**Los Angeles
Meeting of the
National Educa-
tional Association**

From whatever point of view, the Los Angeles meeting of the National Educational Association must be pronounced an unqualified success. Every prediction and promise made in years past on behalf of Los Angeles was justified and fulfilled. The generous warmth and cordiality of the welcome extended by the teachers and by citizens generally, the care and good judgment which marked all of the local arrangements for the meeting, the glorious summer climate, the ample opportunities for interesting excursions almost without number, all aided in giving to the great gathering the aspect of joy and pleasure which characterized it thruout. In size the meeting broke all records and exceeded the most generous estimates. An unofficial report, made upon adjournment, showed that more than fifteen thousand persons had presented tickets to be stamped and had received badges of active or of associate membership. Every detail was cared for, and the executive management was so excellent that there was neither delay nor disappointment. President Lyte, Treasurer McNeill, and Secretary Shepard had their

hands upon the machinery, and that was sufficient assurance that there would be neither breakdown nor confusion. The program was much above the average, and the sessions, both general and departmental, were unusually well attended. The kindergarten department had the best and largest session in its history; the joint meeting of the secondary and higher departments, to receive the report of the committee on college entrance requirements, was very large; and the impromptu discussion of the national university project before the department of higher education attracted and held more persons than had ever attended a meeting of that department before.

The three reports which were presented—that on college entrance requirements, that on normal-school work, and that on the relations between libraries and schools—deserve and will receive extended criticism and comment in this REVIEW. They are all very important reports.

Former State Superintendent Corson of Ohio, an admirable choice, was unanimously elected to the presidency, and Superintendent Pearse of Omaha, for years past one of the markedly strong men in the Association, succeeds President McNeill in the treasurership. The latter retired, at his own request, from an office which he had filled for years with signal ability and greatly to the advantage of the Association. President McNeill's administration of the treasurer's office and his work upon the executive committee have been sagacious and far-seeing, and it would have been a calamity had the lines laid down by him fallen into any hands less competent and devoted than those of Superintendent Pearse.

The detailed financial reports of the treasurer and of the board of trustees were presented to the board of directors and laid before the meeting of active members in printed form, and were explained at length by Treasurer McNeill and Chairman Lane. The income for the year ending June 30, 1899, was \$28,567.10, and the expenditures \$16,010.92. After the transfer of \$10,000 to the permanent fund, the balance on hand was \$2556.18. The trustees' report showed the amount of the permanent fund to be, June 30, 1899, \$74,000, of which \$21,000 was invested in bond and mortgage on city real estate, \$27,000 in Kansas municipal and school district bonds, and

\$19,500 in Illinois, Indiana, and Missouri school district bonds, leaving \$6500 on hand for immediate investment. The total expense, for the year, of administering this fund, was \$77.45, and of that amount \$50 was an extraordinary expenditure for legal services.

Declaration of Principles

At the closing session of the Los Angeles meeting the report of the committee on resolutions was read by the chairman, and adopted unanimously. It was as follows:

The National Educational Association assembled in 38th annual convention, and representing in the largest sense the teachers of the United States, makes the following declaration of principles:

We reaffirm our belief that the course of education, despite difficulties, doubts, and discouragements, is steadily upward and onward. The year which has passed has been one of genuine progress. Sound educational ideals are more firmly established, the benefits of school and college education are more widely diffused, the work of teaching is more intelligent and more successful, and the teachers themselves constantly grow more earnest and more studious. The one dark page in the history of the year is that which records interference with the work of public education, and attacks, successful and unsuccessful, made upon it by political traders and spoils-seekers. We appeal to the public and to the press to resist, to resent and to punish these attacks, and we pledge our best efforts to the absolutely non-political and non-sectarian conduct of the work intrusted to us.

We record with gratitude our sense of obligation to those noble men and women who have held out a generous hand to education North, South, East, and West, and who by their gifts and endowments have added so much to the strengthening and upbuilding of the various types of educational institution, general and special, elementary and higher, thruout the land. The influence of their example is wide-spread, and the effectiveness of their gifts is incalculable.

We emphasize once more the function of the school as a community center, to draw to itself the children and the parents for gatherings which reflect the life of the people and which give it inspiration. Particularly in close association with the library, the school should make itself felt in shaping the thought of the people in ways and by methods which lie outside of the scope of formal instruction.

We support cordially every effort to elevate the profession of teaching by raising the standards for entrance to it, by promoting educational scholarship, and by providing for stability of tenure and for adequate compensation. We are prepared to accept the complementary principle that inefficient and incompetent teachers must yield to the professional judgment which asks their retirement from the school, and we deplore any and every attempt, organized or other, to protect such teachers in their posts by influence, whether personal or political.

We wish by every legitimate means to support the invaluable work of the Bureau of Education, and we ask that it be given such support by Congress as will enable it to perform, with fullest efficiency, the task intrusted to it. We recognize, perhaps more fully than do others, the value of the statistics of education collected in the census of 1890, and we earnestly urge upon the Director of the forthcoming census the desirability of carrying on anew the lines of inquiry then pursued, together with such additions and improvements as experience has shown to be needed.

This Association has long insisted and continues to insist upon the full recognition of all educational agencies as essentially undertakings in the public interest, whether they are supported by public taxation or by other means. All alike are and should be in heartiest co-operation, and any attempt to array one institution, or one form of educational effort, against another, is little short of treason to the nation's highest interests.

The past year has brought new and grave responsibilities to our common country and has opened before it new and difficult opportunities. With a courage born of high hope and of confidence in democracy, the nation's schools and schoolmasters will assume their full share of the burden so suddenly imposed upon our citizenship, and will contribute by every means in their power to the wise, patriotic, and democratic solution of the problems which confront us as a people.

Notes and News Rochester University, after a long period of waiting, has finally secured a president. Rev. Rush Rhees, formerly of Newton (Mass.) Theological Seminary, has been chosen to the post, greatly to the satisfaction of the friends and well-wishers of the institution.

The annual meeting of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in the Middle States and Maryland will be held at the State Normal School, Trenton, N. J., on December 1 and 2.

The announcement that Columbia University will hold a regular summer session in 1900, and thereafter, marks an important addition to the educational opportunities of the country. To put the teaching staff, the library, and the laboratories of the great metropolitan university at the service of the teachers and students of the United States for a considera-

ble portion of the usual summer recess is a great gain, and one which is certain to be taken advantage of eagerly.

It is reported that Lord Curzon, viceroy of India, proposes to create a minister of education for that country.

Mr. George Saintsbury's recent volume on Matthew Arnold is justly criticised for its inadequate and unsympathetic treatment of Mr. Arnold's work for education.

The recent Congress of teachers in secondary schools, in France, passed the following resolutions by a large majority:

Inasmuch as both the matter and the manner of all instruction bear more and more on moral and social education, and since practical morality, whether in its systematic teaching or in the education of the lycée, has a concrete social basis which permits the teacher to avoid dogma and sectarianism while fully respecting the liberty of conscience of his pupils, this Congress rejects the proposal for lessons in theoretical, speculative, and critical ethics for any but the highest classes; but at the same time it suggests that lectures on ethical topics, and entirely practical in character, should be instituted outside of the regular course of study, and that all pupils should be encouraged to associate themselves as far as possible with some suitable form of philanthropy.

It is a cause for congratulation that Mr. Bardeen's indispensable *School Bulletin* has successfully completed its twenty-fifth volume. It is a distinct loss to educational journalism whenever Mr. Bardeen fails to attend an important meeting of teachers or school officers and to record his impressions of it.

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

OCTOBER, 1899

I

PHILOSOPHY AT OXFORD

As the word implies, the philosopher is a lover of wisdom—resembling other lovers also in this, that he does not always achieve his heart's desire—but in Oxford, at least, it is held that the love of wisdom should be tempered and tested by an examination system. Hence it is that it may here truly be asserted that the fear of examination is the beginning of wisdom (and, in some cases, alas, also its end!), and this fact constitutes the cardinal difference between the system of study at Oxford and in America. The American teacher appears to be almost absolutely free and untrammelled. He must, indeed, be able to inspire his students with a belief that they are likely to spend their time profitably, or at least agreeably, in attending his courses, and he must be able, in his reports to his official superiors, to point with pride to an extensive popular appreciation of his instructions. But provided that he complies with these two conditions of existence he can, in general, treat whatever subject he pleases, in whatever manner he pleases, imposing whatever tests he pleases, and estimating them by whatever standards he pleases. Compared with him, his English *confrère* seems the slave of an examination system. An objective and inflexible order of examination directs the energies both of teachers and students into definite channels, and forms the end for which they severally prepare themselves and others. It is no use for the teacher to lecture on subjects which are “no good for the schools” (*i. e.*, examinations). It is fatal for the student to dissipate on such subjects the time

and energy he will sorely need to do himself justice in the trials which establish his intellectual rank in life.

At first sight, therefore, it seems as if the American and English systems might be contrasted as free research *versus* "cramming." But, as so often, appearances here are decidedly misleading. The American professor's freedom of research is, in practice, seriously limited by the two conditions to which I have alluded, and hence the student's "freedom of election," which is at present so widely superseding the more ancient system of "required courses," tends to destroy the professor's freedom of election in all subjects which present great intrinsic difficulties to the untutored human mind. And inasmuch as this remark pre-eminently applies to philosophy, it may safely be predicted that this study is bound to decline wherever students are permitted to choose the path of least resistance, and the notion that the college course aims primarily at mental development, rather than at practical professional specialization, is given up. And, moreover, it is equally obvious that philosophic instruction will, under such conditions, tend chiefly to emphasize the more popularly attractive sides of its subject—tho this is not perhaps altogether an evil.

On the other hand, much might be said concerning the merits of examinations and the value of the mental qualities which they tend to develop, and even those who regard them only as necessary evils would have to admit that they become more evil and less necessary precisely in proportion as the guarantees for the maintenance of an objective and unvarying standard are withdrawn. This is fully recognized by the English examination system, which everywhere seeks to make provision for an independent testing of a teacher's work. Even in the schools examination papers are, as far as possible, set and looked over by others than the actual teachers of the class, and public opinion compels every school of repute annually to submit itself to external examination at the hand of Oxford and Cambridge examination boards.

Hence it is merely an application of this principle of objectivity when at Oxford no examiner either marks his own pupils' work or decides their "class," and conscientious efforts

are made to keep up the same standard, not only in the same subject from year to year, but as between the different subjects. First-class honors in any subject are regarded as proof of real ability and mental power, and hence the number of "firsts" annually bestowed varies very much in different "schools." Thus it is disproportionately small in law, history, and theology, because not so many of the ablest men commonly study these subjects at college; it is disproportionately large in mathematics, because men of mediocre ability do not ordinarily enter for this school at Oxford, and the candidates are nearly all holders of scholarships, selected (after examination) on account of their mathematical aptitude.

The aim, then, of the Oxford examination system is to secure an objective classification of minds, to determine not merely how much knowledge a candidate can absorb and reproduce within a given time, but rather what is the power and caliber of his mind; it is therefore essentially hostile to "cram." And altho candidates sometimes fail to do themselves justice in examination, altho examiners sometimes make mistakes—Mr. F. H. Bradley and Lord Curzon are famous cases of first-rate men who only got "seconds"—the long lists of distinguished alumni who have proceeded from the Oxford first class to success in after life sufficiently demonstrate that in practice the system is an undeniable success.

For the teacher it is not perhaps the most interesting, stimulating, and pleasant system; for it subordinates research to education, leads him to sacrifice a great part of his time to the conduct of multifarious examinations, and never relieves him from anxiety about the success of his pupils for which he is held in large measure responsible. But it can hardly fail to be more beneficial to the student to have a definite number of well-considered schemes of study put before him than to be left to pick out what he needs from a chaotic mass of heterogeneous "courses." And even the examination, which seems to enslave him, is in reality the charter of his liberties. For by its objectivity, by its independent testimony to his worth, it emancipates him from too great dependence upon his professor.

After these preliminary explanations as to the nature and working of Oxford examinations in general, it will be feasible to consider how the study of philosophy enters into the examination system.

Practically it may be said that the philosophic studies in Oxford culminate in the Final Honor School of Literæ Humaniores ("Greats"). For altho an attempt is made to insist on a philosophic study of all subjects, in the sense of laying stress on their underlying principles, and altho the First Public Examination or Classical Honor Moderations ("Mods"), which is taken at the end of the fifth term after matriculation, includes as a frequently-chosen "extra" subject a paper in logic (the traditional deductive and inductive *or*, in lieu of the latter, selections from Aristotle's *Prior analytics*), and pass "Mods" also requires in one paper, a choice between somewhat elementary logic and mathematics, "greats," the honor school in classics, is what one has in mind in speaking of the study of philosophy in Oxford.

The philosophy in "Greats" arose out of the traditional study of logic, which has descended from the Middle Ages, on the one hand, and out of questions on the subject-matter of prescribed tests of Plato and Aristotle on the other. At present it forms a full third of the subject of the examination, and one of the branches in which excellence, combined with adequate knowledge in the other two, will secure the coveted "first." The other two branches are two selected periods of Greek and Roman history, and classical scholarship as shown in the translation of the required "books," the composition of Greek and Latin prose, and "unseen" translations. Practically what candidates have to do in philosophy is to study minutely the text of Plato's *Republic* and Aristotle's *Nicomachean ethics*, and to be familiar with the philosophy of those great masters and the moral, metaphysical, and political problems which are discussed in their masterpieces. This knowledge will stand them in good stead in grappling with the "translation" paper, the "*Republic* and *Ethics* questions" paper, and the "moral and political philosophy" paper (in which, however, there are also two or three questions on economics). But for

the "logic" paper, confessedly found the hardest by most men, more will be required. It takes "logic" in the broadest sense of theory of knowledge, and is not averse to trenching upon the cognate subjects of metaphysics and psychology. And it always includes some questions on Aristotle's theory of knowledge and Bacon's *Novum organum*, for the answering of which it is necessary to read the latter book, and, at least, the *Posterior analytics*. There is also, generally at least, one question on the Kantian criticism. In addition, it is permissible to offer a "special subject" in philosophy, but the great majority of men find that the required subjects are quite enough to absorb their energies.

The keynote of the whole system is comparison and criticism. Ancient and modern views are compared and criticised: Aristotle is compared with Plato, and both with moderns; systems of thought are considered in their historical context and effects, and a philosophic view is taken of history. The parallel study of ancient history and philosophy has the inestimable advantage that the former provides material for the reflections of the latter, and gives a concrete meaning and illustration to its abstractions, thereby guarding against the vice, into which philosophic specialism otherwise so easily falls, of becoming a mere juggling with abstract counters which mean nothing because they apply to nothing in particular and are never tested by concrete interpretations. And the humanizing and educational effect which is pre-eminently ascribed to "Greats" is considerably intensified by the popular belief that almost every form of culture or special knowledge can be brought in to illustrate the subjects of "Greats" questions. The topics are so various and so elastic that it is impossible to read too widely (provided that the primary texts be not neglected!), and the true "Greats man" may well exclaim, *Nihil humanum a me alienum puto!*

With regard to the method of instruction the most salient peculiarity of Oxford is the essay-writing. In addition to attending lectures (not more than twelve hours a week and generally less), which are often noted down *verbatim*, a "Greats man" prepares two, three, and even four essays, a

fortnight, divided about equally between philosophy and history. These consist mainly of a statement and critical discussion of some subject suggested by his tutor, and are taken to the tutor and read. The latter in his turn critically discusses the essay and comments on its subject, replies to questions, and indicates further subjects and the books to be read, and generally assists his pupil in his work. Pupils are, as a rule, taken *singly* (usually for an hour a week, tho sometimes more!), as this is supposed to render them less sensitive about having their deficiencies pointed out to them; but in some cases an overburdened tutor is forced to take them in twos or threes. Still, every pupil gets a large amount of individual attention and private tuition, and the tutor can generally form a pretty accurate idea of his pupil's character, mental development, and moral conduct, and can advise accordingly—which he is the more likely to do as social intercourse between tutor and pupil, so far from being regarded with suspicion, as in many American institutions, is encouraged, and the former is expected (unobtrusively) to keep the eye of a father or elder brother on the latter.

Now it is obvious that, educationally, this system has a two-fold effect. On the one hand it trains the student in the art of writing, and in point of fact the result is that most Oxford men of ability have become fluent writers of good English by the time they graduate. On the other hand, it absorbs a great deal of the tutor's time, and is far more exacting than mere lecturing. With twenty to thirty pupils plus four to eight hours' lecturing, a tutor has not much time or energy for researches of his own in term-time, and it becomes readily intelligible that many a great and self-sacrificing teacher, when asked for the achievements of his life's work, could point only to the pupils he had trained, much as Cornelia could produce no jewels but her sons. Nor, again, does the system encourage the tutor to specialize: it is only recently that "Greats" tutors have become differentiated into historians and philosophers, and only in a few of the largest colleges is a further specialization into logicians and moralists to be observed.

Such, then, is the nature of "Greats" and the part played in

it by the study of philosophy. Now "Greats" is still the glory of Oxford and its predominant examination, and hence the ablest men nearly always covet the distinction of a "first in Greats." That educationally it must, as I have said, be considered a success, is shown by the way in which it supplies the recruits for the civil services, at home and in the colonies, and for the leading professions. But from the point of view of the philosophic specialist it has obvious defects. At best philosophy occupies one-half the student's time during the last seven terms of his university life. And tho its association with history is not, as I have tried to show, devoid of philosophic value, it cannot be pretended that it covers the whole ground of the history of thought, or even that it goes very deeply into most of the subjects it includes. It lays a sound foundation for the further studies of the specialist, and gives the cultivated man an insight into problems without which he can never hope to understand life; but beyond this it does not go.

Regarded as a propædæutic for a deeper study of philosophy the system has also the further drawback that it is practically open to good classical scholars alone. For the bulk of the texts of which a knowledge is required is such that only those who can read Greek and Latin with considerable facility can find the time for a study of the subject-matter. Hence most college tutors discourage attempts to read for "Greats" on the parts of all who have not succeeded in reaching the level of a second class in Classical Moderations. Similarly the naturally stupid are not encouraged in imposing on their teachers the arduous task of inculcating into them a comprehension of philosophic abstractions. Nevertheless the annual number of candidates varies between 130 and 160, and it is this fact which gives Oxford philosophy its predominance over the Cambridge school, whose far more systematic Moral Science Tripos does not attract a tithe of these numbers.

A very serious weakness which, however, philosophy shares with the other academic subjects in Oxford, is that very scanty provision is made for graduate study. It is true that the new "research degrees" in science and letters are intended to encourage graduate study and to elicit theses, and that the

candidates for them are supposed to work under the special direction of the professor in their subject. But altho many of the ordinary lectures would be esteemed very advanced in any German or American university, it can hardly be said at present that the lecture list caters specially for the graduate student or that an organized system of instruction exists for his benefit. No doubt in the future such a system must gradually develop, and the more imaginative of academic reformers even now dream of the day when a scheme of a general liberal education now provided for many of the various "honor schools" will be supplemented by a more specialized system of graduate studies for the few, in which original research in thesis form will obtain its due. Such a development would also be of great service in more definitely differentiating the functions of the college tutor and the university professor, as the latter would naturally concentrate himself upon the higher work instead of needlessly duplicating the work of the former.¹

In the matter of university recognition the subject of philosophy is not unfairly treated, tho not as amply provided for as by the (twenty-one) colleges, each of which has at least one, or (in most cases) two and, in not a few, three or four "Greats" tutors. There are three professors, the Waynflete professor of metaphysics, the Wykeham professor of logic, and White's professor of moral philosophy, attached severally to the colleges of Magdalen, New, and Corpus Christi. In addition, the munificence of a recent benefactor has this year enabled the university to recognize the growing importance of psychology by appointing Mr. G. F. Stout to the Wilde readership in mental philosophy. To Mr. Wilde's generosity also is due the establishment of the John Locke scholarship, which will probably in future become the prize of the most promising philosopher of the year and encourage the study of philosophy after graduation.

It will be noted that Oxford possesses no chair or laboratory

¹ This remark applies chiefly to such subjects as are popular enough to lead the colleges to appoint tutors in them. In the natural sciences the professors (with their assistants) already conduct most of the instruction.

of the new experimental psychology, a fact which is due, not so much to her traditional conservatism and slowness in following the fashions, nor yet to a lack of interest—it is true, mainly critical—in the subject, but chiefly to the poverty of the university and the impoverishment of nearly all her colleges by the agricultural depression, and in part also to the circumstances of her systems of instruction. For it is evident that there are limits to the elasticity of “Greats” and its capacity to assimilate new subjects; it is already filled almost to bursting point and in some danger of becoming superficial. Hence it could hardly endure the addition of a subject so heterogeneous to those now studied as modern experimental psychology would necessarily be. Experimental psychology, therefore, would most naturally associate itself with the natural sciences, which in Oxford play the part of the daughters of the horse-leech, and are forever demanding fresh endowments and turning into further laboratories the profits which the Clarendon Press derives from the sales of its Bibles. But at present the scientists seem to have too urgent demands to make for their own departments to care to divert to psychology the funds they are able to extort from a reluctant university.

Turning from the organization to the tone of philosophy in Oxford and the personages who inspire that tone, it may be said that Oxonian philosophy is still predominantly idealistic. But the term idealism applies ambiguously to widely-divergent views, and the Oxford “don” is not in general fanatical or inclined to tie himself down to hard and fast systems. Agreement is found rather in negation than in positive doctrine, as is apparent in constant polemic against hedonism in ethics, particularism in logic, associationism in psychology, and individualism in politics. But new questions are coming up, and J. S. Mill is sinking even below the level of a whipping boy. On the whole the prevailing temper is less skeptical than a dozen years ago, when the habit of seeing both sides to a question led some of the leading tutors to teach that all views were more and less true (and false) and their pupils to draw the corollary that in such a case truth did not matter—to the diminution of the interest in philosophy. The influence of

T. H. Green, always largely personal in character, has of course declined; that of Hegel, on the other hand, has hardly suffered, and it is as fashionable as ever to make his name the subject of reverential allusion. Still the curious fact remains that not even the most zealous of *soi-disant* Hegelians have ever ventured to make his philosophy the subject of a lecture course. Kant, on the other hand, is constantly lectured on, tho a whole-souled Kantian would be hard to discover. A similar remark applies still more to the ancients, in connection with whom it may be said that tho not all are Platonists, all are Aristotelians in a more or less profound degree. As regards modern philosophy, interest is, on the whole, greater in logic than in ethics and psychology. But there are symptoms among the younger men of a dissatisfaction with the supremacy of the logical universal and the pantheistic corollaries which have been extracted from it, and of a desire to supplement it by insisting on the ethical doctrine of personality. And the interest in psychology is likely to increase. If so, it will probably follow the lines laid down in the works of Professor James, who, alone of American philosophers, is well known and extensively read and admired in Oxford. His *Principles of psychology* are in the hands of every teacher, his text-book in those of most students in Oxford, while his essays in the *Will to believe* are found to be admirably adapted to arouse interest in philosophy.

But books in Oxford have ever been less potent than men, and hence it is fortunate for philosophy that among all ranks of the academic hierarchy, alike among the heads of colleges, the professors, and the tutors, its representatives have never lacked those personal characteristics which carry weight in the university. Among the heads of houses the president of Corpus Christi (Dr. Fowler) and the master of Balliol (Dr. Caird) are more particularly identified with philosophy; both of them veterans whose philosophic name and fame are coextensive with the English tongue, tho they differ in their philosophic sympathies, and in the fact that the former, after resigning the chair of logic a dozen years ago, in order to devote himself to his administrative duties, now contents him-

self with supervising the philosophic work of his college and giving general encouragement and judicious advice to his friends and pupils, while the latter, ever since he returned to Oxford half a dozen years ago, has not ceased to lecture and to draw appreciative audiences from the undergraduates of his own and other colleges.²

Among the professors, the first in seniority of appointment is Professor Cook Wilson, whose views dominate the logical teaching of the university, and whose fame outside Oxford would doubtless be commensurate with his influence within if he had ever found time to compress himself within the four corners of a formal treatise. Next in order comes Professor Case, the sturdy and genial champion of physical realism, who, after long and successful service as tutor of Corpus Christi in Greek history as well as in philosophy, now fills the chair of metaphysics which was originally erected for Mansel. Professor J. A. Stewart, the representative of moral philosophy, is well known by reason of the service he has rendered to the study of Aristotle by his monumental *Notes on the Nicomachean ethics*. The recent acquisition of Mr. Stout, who combines with his psychology the editing of *Mind* and a lively interest in every aspect of philosophy, has already been mentioned.

Among the tutors several have been more or less distracted from philosophy by the administrative needs of a self-governing *alma mater*. Thus Mr. T. H. Grose has become registrar of the university, and Mr. Charles Cannan secretary to the Clarendon Press, renouncing Aristotelian logic for the direction of that great publishing business.

² The surprise and censure provoked by the fact that some years ago Dr. Caird was not chosen to fill a vacancy in the chair of moral philosophy is mainly due to a misapprehension of the local circumstances. No slur on Dr. Caird was implied, nor did partisan or college feeling decide the result. The fact was that Dr. Caird already enjoyed the highest status and authority existing in Oxford as the head of one of its foremost colleges, and that the election was decided by the reasonable objection of some lifelong reformers on the Electoral Board to a reversion to the ancient abuse which treated professorships as the perquisites of distinguished Heads of Houses. Hence the article in the *Contemporary review* (November, 1898) and the letter in the *International journal of ethics* (March, 1899) must be regarded as incorrect statements of fact.

Among the rank and file of tutors the number of those who have become known (favorably or otherwise) by dint of "writing something," is proportionately smaller in Oxford than in a German or American university. This comparative sterility, tho often censured, is, however, susceptible of a very simple explanation. The success of an ambitious American or German scholar depends very largely on his literary output, that of an Oxford tutor hardly at all. It is far more important that he should teach efficiently, win the confidence of his pupils, and cultivate harmonious relations with his colleagues than that he should prematurely have launched the first volume of a gigantic treatise or have compiled an unnecessary textbook. A tutor's work, moreover, is so exacting that the writing of books becomes a hobby which only the strongest can indulge in, and so it becomes natural enough that men should postpone from year to year the submission of their great work to a public which they know will nowhere criticise more carpingly and more exasperatingly than in Oxford itself.

Hence it is deserving of special commendation that, *e. g.*, Mr. Hastings Rashdall, of New College, should not only be the author of a learned history of the universities in the Middle Ages, but also of numerous philosophic articles and of a most interesting volume of philosophic sermons; and that the discipular zeal of Mr. Fairbrother, of Lincoln, should have condensed into the convenient dimensions of a handbook the philosophy of his master, T. H. Green. Most of the other teachers of philosophy also have books "forthcoming," and as yet *μακαρίζονται δι' ἑλπίδος*, but the present writer can from personal knowledge testify to the ability and learning of most of them. Mr. Marett of Exeter, a Platonist and anthropologist of boundless energy; Mr. Sidney Ball, and Mr. Pogson Smith of St. John's (who has chosen Hobbes for his hobby), Mr. J. A. Smith of Balliol, Mr. Joseph of New, Messrs. Underhill, Benecke, and Webb of Magdalen; Mr. Wylie and Dr. Bussell of Brasenose (a writer, tho not a teacher, of philosophy), Mr. Blunt of Christ Church, Mr. Richards of Wadham, Mr. Prichard of Trinity, and Mr. T. O. Smith of Oriel may be mentioned in this connection.

But the greatest and most widely-esteemed of Oxford philosophers is not, and never has been, a teacher within her walls. Mr. F. H. Bradley has been compelled by the "bridle of Theages" (which in his case might more fitly be called a muzzle), in other words, by the infirmity of his health, to lead the life of a cloistered recluse in the beautiful gardens of Merton, and to appeal to the philosophic world by the written word alone. The loss to Oxford has no doubt been immense, but perhaps Mr. Bradley also has lost something by not being able to take an active part in philosophic instruction. For the daily struggle to render philosophic truth visible to undergraduate eyes might have rendered his writings easier and more indulgent toward the infirmity of the human intellect.

Still Oxford has every reason to be proud of Mr. Bradley and to congratulate herself that, by her slowness to reform her ancient abuses, she has rendered his life and work possible. For Mr. Bradley is one of the old celebrate life-Fellows whose status has since been abolished by the Statutes of 1881, and it is this that has secured for him the leisure which he has turned to such good philosophic account.

In conclusion it may be well to add a few words as to the facilities which modern Oxford affords to American students of philosophy and other subjects. It cannot be said that even now she lays herself out to attract them, tho she no longer takes pride in exclusiveness. The research degrees of bachelors of letters and science were intended, among other things, to facilitate the sojourn of Americans in the ancient home of English learning. But as they do not lead to the doctorate, which is so valuable a qualification for appointments, they are not exactly what the majority of American students want. And a candidate for them enjoys(?) almost complete extra-tutoriality (if I may coin the phrase) and is left to himself, to make what use he can of the libraries and other educational resources of the place. Again, the status of research students is not quite satisfactory; they are technically undergraduates, but do not, as a rule, feel disposed to mix with the ordinary undergraduates. If they do not join a college, they tend to languish in obscurity, and even if they do, they do not

at once leap into prominence. For Oxford is too large and too much habituated to an aristocratic indifference of manner to be readily "enthused" about anybody, which exasperates somebodies who feel they are being treated as nobodies. Moreover, most of the colleges are reluctant to derange their ordinary machinery by admitting students whose course lies outside the beaten track, and indeed most of them are hardly capacious enough to admit them in large numbers. Such difficulties would not, it is true, arise in the case of Americans who proposed to take the regular undergraduate course; but in this case, apart from the fact that a degree cannot be got in less than three years, the high requirements in classics constitute a serious obstacle. Altogether, a good deal requires to be done before the English universities are arranged for the convenience of American students, tho this is now merely a result of the fact that they have primarily studied the convenience of the English educational system. It should be added, lastly, that American scholars will have nothing to complain of the private, as contrasted with the public, hospitality of the academic order, and that there exists thruout it a strong desire to cultivate the most amicable personal relations with the Republic of Letters across the Atlantic.

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II

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL READING BOOKS

No branch of our common-school curriculum possesses such a rich and varied retrospect as the subject of reading. Its historical development, beginning with the early schools of the Reformation, presents two aspects: that of method and the making of text-books.

The limitations which the subject naturally imposes upon the scope of method have resulted in a vibratory movement between the extremes of thought and form. From the advocates of the complete subordination of form, making the word a mere incident in the thought process, on the one hand, to those who seek the fluent mastery of words as such, and at whatever sacrifice of thought, on the other, the arc of oscillation is punctuated all along the line with the stress points of the great promoters of this or that theory of how the subject should be taught.

While the method makers have been chasing one another back and forth thru this limited arc, the text-book makers have had a much wider range of action. In fact, their field is the world and all that is therein, for the scope of the subject-matter is unlimited. The child may read history, literature, politics, science, religion, mythology, nonsense—anything. The material is not, like that of arithmetic or grammar, sequentially related and defined. Hence, school reading has ever been the favorite field of enterprising publishers, text-book compilers, moral and religious reformers.

The history of reading as a branch of our common-school curriculum may be traced back to the earliest schools of the Reformation. It was the religious doctrine and zeal of the Reformers which gave the subject of reading that all-important place in the elementary curriculum which it has held ever since. Faith in the word of God as the ground of salvation for each

individual made it necessary that everyone should be able to read at least a portion of the Bible. The schools were the handmaid of the Church. Hence reading constituted almost the entire curriculum.

School text-books in reading, as we know them, did not make their appearance until the last quarter of the eighteenth century. Previous to that time the reading book was the Bible or adaptations from it. Luther's *Child's little primer* contained the Lord's Prayer, the Commandments, the Creed, and the Catechism, after the fashion of the Catholic primers of the time. The first English Protestant A B C book was likewise a Church book, and appeared in England about the middle of the sixteenth century. These early primers were illustrated with crude woodcuts representing scenes and events from the Bible, identical with or similar to those of Luther's Catechism of 1553, and to those found in the cloister Bibles of the period.

The development of the picture, as an aid to the pupil in learning to read, forms an interesting chapter in the history of school reading books. Its function varied with the views of different authors as to how beginners should be introduced to the subject. In one set of primers the picture connected with each letter of the alphabet was intended to aid the pupil by means of an associated sound. Thus, the picture of a bleating sheep for *b*, of a hissing serpent for *s*, a buzzing insect for *z*. In another set of primers the picture was used to aid the pupil by means of an associated form which resembled the shape of the letter. Thus *o* resembles the shape of a driver's lips when he says *ho!*, *w* resembles the crawling worm. The picture was also used in teaching phonetic combinations: thus a woman scaring chickens represented the German *sch* and the English *sh*. Pictures for the instruction and amusement of children, outside of the illustrated alphabet, did not appear until about a century later, and first in the *Orbis pictus* of Comenius. This book was published in Nuremberg in 1657, and for more than one hundred years was the most popular text-book in Europe. It is too well known to require more than a brief notice in this article. It was the first illustrated

schoolbook, except the primer and the Bible, the first recognition of the importance and value of the picture in teaching children, the first attempt at object-lesson instruction, and the beginning of the "word method" in teaching reading. It was translated into ten European and four Asiatic languages. It was published in America in 1812.

One of the stories in *The jests of Scogin*, a popular book of tales of the time of Henry VIII., relates "How a husbandman put his sonne to schoole with Scogin." The slovenly boy, almost as big as a knave, began to learn his A B C. "Scogin did give him a lesson of nine of the first letters of the A, B, C, and he was nine daies in learning of them. And when he had learned the nine Christ-cross-row letters the good scholler said, 'Am ich past the worst now?'" The important feature in the passage is the reference to the Christ-cross-row, which contained the nine letters of the alphabet from A to I. From this and other references it would seem that the abacus, or "Chriss-cross-row," as it was commonly called, was the first round on the elementary text-book ladder. It was superseded by the hornbook and the primer, but did not entirely disappear from the schools until the present century. The numerical frame, still used in some schools, is said to be the lineal descendant of the Christ-cross-row and the hornbook.

The hornbook used in the dame schools of New England was originally an English production. Only a very few of these interesting relics of the early elementary schools of colonial times are known to be in existence. I am informed that there are three in the library of the British Museum, and that only one has been found in the United States. The hornbook consisted of a square, short-handled wood or pasteboard paddle, upon which was pasted a sheet of paper containing the small letters and capitals, the Arabic and Roman numerals, as many syllables as could be crowded into the space, together with the Lord's Prayer. The paper was protected by a transparent sheet of horn.

Neatly secured from being soiled or torn,
Beneath a frame of thin transparent horn;

—Cowper

If a wooden paddle was used, the margins of paper and horn were protected by strips of brass, tacked around the edges.

Which with pellucid horn securèd are
To save from fingers wet the letters fair :

—*Shenstone*

The shape of the hornbook was suggestive of other uses than those directly connected with letters, and the fact that all cuts we have ever seen of this piece of school apparatus show cracks and rents in the horn would seem to indicate that it may have served a double purpose with the tardy loiterers along the flowery path of knowledge.

The hornbook was followed by the Catechism. Down to the last quarter of the eighteenth century almost the only books used in the Colonial schools were the hornbook, Catechism, and the Bible. The Bible furnished the entire course of reading above the Catechism. The first class, or beginners, read from the Psalter, which contained the Psalms, the Proverbs, the Sermon on the Mount, and the Nicene Creed. The second class was known as the Testament class; the third, as the Bible class. Near the close of the seventeenth century the Catechism was supplemented by the famous New England Primer. This was a church book, but included much more than the A B C book and the Catechism. It was a very short and cautious step in the direction of a secularization of the course of study. It was used in the schools for more than a century and was a perennial spring of moral, scholastic, and religious inspiration. The following is a brief summary of the contents of the edition of 1777. A child's morning and evening prayer; the alphabet, vowels, consonants, capitals, small letters, syllables *ab, eb, ib*, etc.; lists of words for spelling, a lesson for children, including such unadorned moral injunctions as the following: Pray to God, Tell no lies, Call no ill names, Mind your book, Be not a dunce, etc.; a series of woodcuts associated with the letters of the alphabet in order, beginning with the tree of forbidden fruit, the serpent, and our first parents, and all arranged in appropriate rhyme. Thus,

In Adam's fall
We sinned all.

The Deluge drowned,
The Earth around.

As runs the glass,
Our life doth pass.

Young Obadiah,
David, Josiah,
All were pious.

Zaccheus he,
Did climb a tree,
Our Lord to see.

Next the Catechism, beginning with easy questions: Who was the first man? the first woman? the first murderer? the first martyr? the oldest man? the patientest man? the meekest man? the strongest man? etc.; an infant's grace before and after meat, an alphabet of lessons for youth, using proverbs and other Bible admonitions, the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, Dr. Watts' cradle hymn, "Hush my babe," etc., a picture of the burning of John Rogers at the stake "witnessed by his wife with nine small children and one at the breast," followed by a long posthumous poem of advice and admonition to his children. Then the shorter Catechism, followed by still another brief Catechism by John Patton, called: *Spiritual milk for American babes, drawn from the breasts of both Testaments for their soul's nourishment*. The book closes with a tragic scene in which Youth, after alternately listening to the admonitions of Christ and the solicitations of the Devil, weighs his destiny, vacillates, and finally chooses the evil and goes to hell.

Such was the sturdy diet administered in heroic measure, often with a wholesome seasoning of birch-tree bark, to the children of our forefathers. It was not so forbidding to them as it would be to the children of to-day, capricious from the profusion of attractive juvenile literature that surrounds them. It was indeed heavenly manna and from it they caught the "trick of looking upward," which, alas! the boys and girls of the present fail to catch from much of the new literature.

It was not until after the War for Independence that the Americans began to print school text-books. Webster's spelling book was first published in 1783. Besides spelling, it

included subject-matter in both grammar and reading. This book is still with us after more than a century of service, and is extensively used, especially in the rural schools of the South. More than sixty million copies of this book had been sold previous to 1895.

The incompleteness of the primer and the Bible as a course of study in reading for the elementary school was apparently not felt until the latter part of the last century. While the child might learn to read from these two sources, yet he did not acquire a taste for reading nor obtain from them information concerning nature, history, the world about him, or the world at large. Between the primer and the Bible there was a wide gap which offered opportunity for the introduction of new material. It was also at about this time that the influence of great educational reformers like Comenius, Rousseau, Locke, and Pestalozzi began to be felt in the common schools. Instead of demanding that the child should adjust himself entirely to the course of study, efforts were making to adjust the course of study to the requirements of the child. The *Orbis pictus* had blazed out a path in this direction a century before. But it was a crude effort to interest the child in a book of pictures and words—not stories. It was encyclopedic, dry, and verbal, more like an illustrated dictionary than a child's reading book.

The movement for the enrichment of the curriculum thru the medium of a school reader was pioneered in Germany by Frederick Eberhard Rochow (1734-1805). Rochow published, in 1776, *Der Kinderfreund*. In the preface the author states that the book is designed "die grosse Lücke zwischen Fibel und Bibel auszufüllen." This book contained about eighty separate selections, mostly of a didactic and religious character, interspersed with interesting bits of information concerning the earth and nature. It was the first step toward secularizing the course in reading in the German elementary schools.

The first reading book corresponding to Rochow's *Kinderfreund*, of which I have been able to find any trace in American schools, was Webster's *Third part reader*, published in

1785. It was "calculated to impress the mind and refine the taste of youth." Also to "instruct them in the geography, history, and politics of the United States." Another of the early reading books used extensively in this country was the *English reader*, by Lindley Murray, published in London. From the preface to the edition of 1799 we learn that it was intended "to improve the youth in the art of reading, to meliorate their language and sentiments, and to inculcate some of the most important principles of piety and virtue." The lessons are classified under the following headings: narrative, didactic, argumentative, descriptive, pathetic, promiscuous, dialogs, and public speeches. The selections under these headings are made with special reference to their moral content. Thus, under narrative, "The execution of Haman, or, The misery of pride." Under argumentative, "Happiness founded on rectitude." Under descriptive, "The character of King Alfred." Under pathetic, "The amiable character of Joseph." Under dialogs, "Democritus and Heraclitus on the vices and follies of men." Under public speeches, "Paul before Agrippa," etc.

Among other popular text-books of the first quarter of the present century, were the *Columbian orator* and the *American preceptor*, by Caleb Bingham. The selections in the latter book were made with more freedom in the use of secular material than appears in the *English reader*. The spirit of adventure finds expression in the Indian stories and stories about animals: patriotism is also a marked feature. The *Columbian class book*, published in 1825, claimed to be "different from anything yet published," in which claim it was identical with a long line of successors—down even to the present time. The material in this book was taken from geography, history, and biography. Descriptions of strange countries were given: Tierra del Fuego, Lapland, etc. The *National reader*, by John Pierpont, was much more distinctly American than its predecessors. It contained many selections by American authors. American history and patriotism are given prominence.

In this first period of American authorship the effort to

inculcate patriotism, to awaken national feeling, and to cover the ground of history, morality, and religion are characteristic features. There was also a tendency to specialize along these lines, as shown in such books as the *Historical reader* of 1827, by Rev. J. L. Blake, with such selections as the following: The death of Antony and Cleopatra, The death of Cæsar, Marathon, The fall of Rome, The battle of Trafalgar, The battle of Erie, etc. An interesting feature of the book is a half dozen woodcuts, among which are the Tower of Babel and Solomon's Temple.

After 1830 authors turned their attention toward the field of the child's more immediate interests, the world about him. As an illustration of this new trend we have such books as the *Instructive reader* of 1848, William D. Swan. This book plunges into nature and science subjects, and offers information about the atmosphere, winds, dew, frosts, hot and cold countries, plants, animals, metamorphosis of insects, mathematical geography, astronomy, etc. The Goodrich Readers had appeared two years earlier. In these the author "sought to impress the pupil with the works of nature, to direct his thought upon things around him, to lead him from Nature to Nature's God." In 1850 appeared McGuffey's complete six-book series. These books were probably more extensively used than any other series ever published in America. In range of subject-matter they swept almost the entire field of human interest: philosophy, history, science; literature (sacred, secular, narrative, descriptive, æsthetic, ethical). Many a valuable lesson of industry, thrift, economy, kindness, generosity, honesty, courage, and duty found expression in the after-life of the millions of boys and girls who read and re-read these books, to which such influences were directly traceable.

After 1850 the increasing quality and variety of school readers become bewildering to the student of text-book history. A host of text-book makers (compilers and printers rather than authors) and publishing houses compete for the trade. Each series must have its "taking points," and each branch of the curriculum must have its reader attachment. Now history, now literature, now science, now scraps of everything,

constitute the feature of a given series. Thus, in the Wilson series of 1860, lessons along all lines of science form the characteristic feature. Even the poetical selections are subordinate to this purpose and illustrate important facts and principles in that special field. Many of these special series were sporadic and short-lived. In the struggle for pre-eminence, literature slowly rises triumphant over those subjects which are confined within the limits of time and space, and in the Swinton series of supplementary readers of 1880 literature takes the field. This marks a new epoch in the development of school readers. From scraps to literary wholes has been the order of movement. The latest and most complete embodiment of the literary ideal in school reading books is found in the Heart of Oak series. In the meantime science and history have not lost, but rather gained, by losing their places in the reading book. Each has gained an independent place in the elementary curriculum now enriched with nature study, pioneer stories, and similar topics.

The scrappy hodgepodge compilations of school reading books have long been the object of severe criticism by leading educators. In the *Common-school journal* of 1839 Horace Mann says that he believes the reading books of that period contain more separate pieces than leaves. "A solemn inculcation of the doctrine of universal peace on one page is followed by a martial slaughter-breathing poem on the next. A catalog of the names of the Old and New Testament is followed by a receipt for making good red ink. A humorous disquisition on the headdress of ladies is followed by another on the future state of eternal happiness and perdition: Milton's *Creation of the world* is followed by the facetious history of *John Gilpin*; Thomson's hymn to the Deity serves as an introduction to Merrick's *Chameleon*." The compilers of these early readers, like the illustrator of the *Orbis pictus*, stuck at nothing. As the latter did not hesitate to set forth the human soul in a woodcut, so the former did not withhold a philosophical disquisition on its essence. They were not "cabined, cribbed, confined" by the principle of adaptation. Demonstrative arguments upon abstruse and recondite sub-

jects taxing the acuteness of astute logicians, brilliant passages from parliamentary debates, scenes from dramas interspersed with scraps of geography, bits of history, and snatches of poetry were thrown in here and there to the utter confusion of both teacher and pupil.

The humorous characterization by Horace Mann in 1839 is matched by the scathing denunciation of President Eliot, as quoted in an article of the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW of July, 1891: "I have paid some attention to the readers used in our public schools thruout the country. I have read an enormous quantity of them and can express the conviction that it would be for the advancement of the whole public-school system if every reader were hereafter to be excluded from the schools. I object to them because they are not real literature; they are but mere scraps of literature, even where the single lessons or material of which they are composed are taken from literature. But there are a great many readers that seem to have compositions expressly for children. They are not made from selections of recognized literature and, as a rule, this class is simply ineffable trash. They are entirely unfit material to use in training our children. The object of reading with children is to convey to them the ideas of the human race. Our readers do not do that and are entirely unfitted to do it. I believe we should substitute in all our schools real literature for readers."

The era of the supplementary reader ushered in by the introduction of the Swinton series has shown two trends of development. In a great many schools it has simply resulted in a duplication or triplication of series in order to freshen the pupil's interest, and facilitate the mastery of the process of learning to read by the repetition of words in new combinations and relations. In other schools supplementary reading is supplied in the form of literary wholes, such as *Mother Goose melodies*, *Fairy tales*, *Seven little sisters*, *Little Lord Fauntleroy*, *Robinson Crusoe*, *Swiss Family Robinson*, *Tanglewood tales*, *Leather stocking tales*, *Snow-bound*, *Hiawatha*, *Evangeline*, *The legend of Sleepy Hollow*, etc. Excellent compressed classics have been prepared to meet school requirements. That

literature has the field among the better class of schools cannot be questioned. "A little leaven leaveneth the whole lump" if you give it time enough, but the lump is a very large one in this case and it will require a long time to do it, especially when the progress of an educational idea must contend not only with ignorance, indifference, and fixed customs and habits of people, but with large vested interests of enterprising publishing houses.

Summing up the above historical sketch, the following periods may be noted:

1. The era of one book, the Bible.
2. The era of transition from the Bible to secular material, using one or two books between the primer and the Bible.
3. The era of one series.
4. The era of supplementary readers.
5. The era of classic literature, into which we are now merging.

The method of teaching beginners to master the process of learning to read will always exert an important influence on the selection of elementary school readers. As long as teachers approach the subject from the form side, and hammer away on the synthesis, analysis, and pronunciation of words as *words*, thus making the means the end, just so long will the ideals of literature appeal to them in vain, and the scrappy inanities called first, second, and third readers continue to hold the field against all comers.

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III

MINOR PROBLEMS OF THE SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT

The office of superintendent of schools is of comparatively recent creation. And therefore we have not yet arrived at any agreement concerning a proper definition of the power and limitations of this officer.

The trend of all recent reforms in legislation relative to the organization of city school systems has been in the direction of isolation of the board of education and its executive officer, in the administration of the school system. I have never been in sympathy with this isolation, but this is not the time to discuss the problem involved in that question. I wish mainly to throw a few side lights upon some of the minor matters involved in the duties of a superintendent of schools.

It is fortunate for weak mortals that very few of us ever have to contend with tragedy in our lives. Most of our troubles remain in the realm of comedy and are, therefore, quite easily mediated by proper handling. A tragedy is when two great ethical principles collide and from which conflict there is no escape. In a tragedy great principles are involved; in a comedy only minor phases of a great principle. In the administrative life of a superintendent, too, there are very few instances involving his usefulness, his power, and his career, where great principles are at stake. But every day there are minor matters which must have attention and upon his treatment of which his official life really depends—not that his official existence is threatened by his treatment of any one or two of these problems, but cumulatively they work his undoing. In short, it is the failure of a superintendent to grapple successfully with these minor difficulties and not the great unsolved problems, which bring trouble and disaster upon the schools whose destinies he has directed.

To be specific, I have in my mind a great administrator, an able manager, a thoroly well informed school official, who was careless about his office hour. Patrons of the school would come to his office and wait hours, and finally go away because the official did not come at all on that day. I called on him once and, tho there were twenty people waiting, he insisted that my friend and I should pass into his private office, and there he kept us thirty minutes, while his townsmen, there to see him on business, were compelled to wait. He is not now in charge of the schools of that city. Years ago I called on another superintendent—merely a complimentary visit with my friend. While we were chatting with this gentleman a boy brought in a card and we made ready to go. "Don't go," he said, "it is only a member of the board," and he talked very pleasantly for twenty minutes in a reminiscent way and the member of the board waited. The next year there was a vacancy.

In another city a parent called to see the superintendent about his boy, who had been suspended. Sitting in a corner of the room I heard the conversation. The superintendent was angry and did not and would not allow the parent to tell *his* story, and was therefore left in the attitude of deciding the case without hearing the evidence. This breach was never healed. It is an axiom among wise administrators that an official should be punctual and regular in his attendance upon his office—that he should see people in the order of their appearance at his office, except in the case of his superior officer, and patrons of the schools prior to the teachers. It is also axiomatic that a complaining person cares more to have his complaint listened to in a gentlemanly manner than he does to have his request granted; and particularly should this be the attitude when the administrator is going to decide adversely to the petitioner.

I have known an official to be stopped on the street by an irate parent, who formulated a complaint against some particular teacher or some particular school. The superintendent immediately took the attitude of a personally aggrieved man, and there was trouble at once. A pleasant word and a promise to investigate would have prevented any trouble.

There is not one complaint in a thousand which comes to a superintendent relative to weakness in the schools or in administration, which is in any sense personal. If a member of the board introduces a resolution to investigate certain alleged abuses or attacks the administration of a certain school, or all of the schools, even if it is personal, why not resolutely treat it as an impersonal matter?

Then, again, there is the attitude toward teacher and principals. Necessarily teachers and principals will not look upon many questions from the same point of view as the superintendent; friction will develop between them, sharp criticism, often unwise and foolish, will emanate from teachers and principals relative to the wisdom of this or that policy of the superintendent. Let the superintendent bear it with equanimity. He may thereby get a point of view which he would not otherwise obtain. He should welcome a certain amount of friction. Out of discussion and conflict comes rational progress. If the criticism is just, he can retrace his steps; if unjust, the right will prevail. Just such friction exists in every large office, in every great mercantile house, and in every great corporation. It exists under every form of government except a despotism. Above all, a superintendent should not so demean himself as to talk with members of the board of education in a complaining way about this criticism. When it is mentioned to him he should minimize its importance.

He should not permit his associates to gossip to him about other associates and, above all, he should refrain from gossiping with a member of the board about other members of the board. He should never for any end betray the confidence of a member of his board, and should decline pleasantly to be used to gain information, by reason of his position, which might be utilized by any faction of the board. Thus will confidence in him be maintained. One Saturday afternoon a superintendent in one of our large cities had a call from a member of his board who was a candidate for the presidency of that board. The fight was a particularly bitter one. This member showed the superintendent a list of votes which would certainly come to him. The superintendent smiled and said: "If

you get all those votes you will be elected." "Do you believe I will get them?" "I doubt it. No; I cannot give you any information." While they were talking the other candidate arrived and asked similar questions. He received similar treatment. And neither of those men ever thought for a moment that he could be betrayed. When they passed out the superintendent told me of the occurrence in a most tactful manner, leaving me, his friend, utterly in the dark as to his preference, if indeed he had any preference.

When the President of the United States listens to every crank who has a pet scheme to reform the world, is there any reason why a superintendent of schools should allow himself to seem bored and be disagreeable when some citizen or some committee from a woman's club presents some impossible reform to him? Can he not say that he has little confidence in the matter, but will give it due consideration and let them know of his views later? Is it wise to forget to answer their petition?

If the people in his community desire the "no school signal" to be given when it is *threatening* rain, should the superintendent insist that he will not give the signal unless the storm is really severe? If the people believe that, during inclement weather, when the schoolhouse is opened to admit the teachers children should be admitted, should the superintendent insist upon keeping the children out in the cold, because they arrive too early? If a parent writes a note to the teacher asking that her child be excused for absence, without giving any specific reason, is it wisdom on the part of the superintendent to attempt to educate the community to his way of thinking on the note question? If the high school begins its session at 8 a. m., and that has been acceptable for years, is it worth while to attempt to change the plan? If the teachers have been permitted to report at 8.45 a. m., is it worth while to grapple with this great evil and have them report at 8.30 a. m.? If the board has usually allowed the Friday after Thanksgiving as a holiday, is it wise to attempt to show the people how much it costs to have this extra holiday and urge that the schools be opened upon that day? If a good system of report

cards and blanks has been in use for a series of years, is it wise to throw them all aside and have a new system that is strange to the people and the teachers adopted for use? Is it the part of wisdom to begin to tinker with the course of study immediately after one has been elected superintendent? Is it wise to proceed immediately to bring about changes in the rules and regulations of the board, especially those which have been used to limit the power of one's predecessor? Is it wise to announce one's policy and plans to the board or to the teachers before one has had an opportunity to get acquainted with the work done in the schools, their excellences and their defects? Is it the part of wisdom to discover suddenly that a number of teachers, who have apparently given satisfaction for years, are incompetent and ought to be removed to make places for others who have proved their worth by their service under us in the last city over whose schools we presided?

Then there are the local papers: one is friendly, the other unfriendly. When one has official information to give out, is it the part of wisdom to ignore the unfriendly journal? And should the superintendent get angry when he cannot control the editorial policy of either of these papers? Newspapers publish criticisms as a matter of news, in an impersonal manner, and one should reconcile himself to his fate, as a public official, of being criticised both fairly and unfairly. Above all, never deny a statement of a personal nature made in a newspaper, or enter into a controversy with the editor. As a rule, when misstatements are made in a newspaper it is on account of misinformation, and while it may be wise personally to give the correct statement to the editor, it is too much to expect him to publicly admit his error.

If a school system has gotten into a rut, and has grown into a condition where there are no teachers' meetings, is it the part of wisdom for the new superintendent to have so many meetings after school that the teachers, tired and over-anxious, feel personally aggrieved at their frequency and length? If thru past mismanagement, or hard times, a community is barely able to appropriate money enough to carry on the

schools, is it the part of wisdom to urge the establishment of kindergartens, or the introduction of some other necessary reform which would largely increase the expense? There are times when every household, every firm, every corporation, must retrench and curtail expense; is it not the duty of the superintendent so to advise his board that they may reduce their expenses with the least detriment to the schools?

And if this is granted, should he, from his position, not make it his business, if possible, to point out to his board the coming storm long before it has burst upon them with all its fury?

The appointment of teachers—In eighty per cent. of the appointments a board of education will approve the nomination of the superintendent. In the remaining twenty per cent. difference of opinion arises.

The superintendent knows that it will arise; therefore, he should refrain from making himself an active partisan for his choice, because his position is both judicial and executive. He should be prepared to give reasons for his nomination at this time, which will appeal to the layman. He cannot afford to be dogmatic or autocratic at this stage, because this attitude will be rightfully interpreted as a sign of weakness. He should, if possible, fortify himself by a personal inspection of the work of the different applicants that he may be in possession of information which his committee cannot have, and then show this committee pleasantly the reasons for the faith that he has in his nominations.

When it comes to a judgment based upon the personal appearance of a candidate a member of the board is as apt to be right as the superintendent. When the choice is to be based upon letters of recommendation, members of the board can form an estimate of the value of these testimonials almost as well as the superintendent. The average superintendent, by proper presentation of his case, will secure the nomination of half of the remaining twenty per cent. The ten per cent. who are elected without the superintendent's nomination perform the function of a safety valve. If such teachers do well he should be free to acknowledge that fact—it will con-

vince him that he is not infallible. Should they fail, he should not say, "I told you so." The fact will be remembered without further mention. Where is the superintendent who has not nominated teachers for positions in his schools and had them prove failures?

Dismissal of teachers—What is the strength of the whole corps of teachers? How many very excellent teachers are there in the corps? How many rank from average to good? How many fall below average? In a specially favored school system thirty per cent. of the corps of teachers may drop into the first class; fifty per cent. into the second class, and twenty per cent. into the third class. It is the duty of a superintendent to attempt to develop the teachers in the second class so that they will rank with the first, and those in the third class so that they will rank with the second. If this duty is intelligently performed, three-fourths of the twenty per cent. in the third class will be helped to such a degree that their work will pass inspection. The remainder should be eliminated. No lasting success in such an enterprise can be expected if one waits until the end of the year and then suddenly by force or innuendo attempts to carry such an order thru the board of education. One such victory means lasting defeat in the time to come. Certain and continued success can be achieved only by following rational and intelligent methods.

First, the teacher herself must be made acquainted with her shortcomings and have proposed to her the remedies. She should be visited again and again to see that these remedies are intelligently and faithfully applied. The principal should be fully conversant with what is going on. If these efforts fail, by the middle of the year the proper committee, or member of the board, should be acquainted with the condition of affairs as well as the methods which have been taken to help her. This should be conveyed to the proper authorities without any trace of feeling and not at all as a statement of fact. It should be an expression of opinion. "I am not satisfied with the work of such a teacher." "It seems to me to be far below what we have a right to expect." "Won't you drop in to that

room some time soon and see how it impresses you in this regard or that?" The member may or may not go; he may or may not be convinced; but the official has put himself upon a solid basis. If matters still continue to go badly, late in March or early in April, the teachers' committee, if there is such a committee, should have a detailed report upon these cases and the teacher be formally notified that her work is unsatisfactory. I know a superintendent, who himself sends out a notice to the weak teacher which states that "I am anxious to recommend you for re-appointment, but cannot see my way clear to such action unless your work materially improves." If her work does not improve, the superintendent does not recommend her at the close of the year. In the large majority of instances the teacher will not be re-elected. In a minority of cases she will secure election, but in such a case the board of education assume the responsibility and the superintendent as their executive officer is absolved from that responsibility. His dignity has not been wounded, his power has not been shaken, and he should not allow himself for a moment to feel affronted by such action. He should tell the teacher frankly that he has no feeling against her, that he will be glad to have her, in her work, disabuse his mind of the prejudice which she thinks he has against her, and that they will work together for the best interests of the schools. And he should not complain to members of the board about their action, or be petulant about it, or act as if some great calamity had overtaken the schools and him. Such incidents happen in all business. Every day some locomotive engineer is discharged by a division superintendent and reinstated by some superior officer. It is an everyday occurrence in mercantile life that the manager wants to discharge some clerk who has outlived his usefulness, but the owners of the property decline to sanction such an act, often on sentimental grounds. The purchasing agent of a great railroad company is notoriously incompetent; the manager has tried again and again to remove him, but he is the uncle of the president and largest stockholder in the company, and he remains. Can one expect the millennium to come in the management of school affairs before it manifests its presence in

the management of firms and corporations? Can human nature be changed in the management of public affairs any more than in private commercial matters?

Poor teachers we shall always have with us. Make them better. It is the same with the world. Ask any business man if he is thoroly satisfied with the efficiency of all his employees and he will look at you in amazement. Why, then, does he not get rid of them? Because he does not know where to find men and women who are certainly better and because, strange to say, of sentimental considerations.

Changes in text-books—In the best schools changes in text-books are infrequent. In a measure school management is excellent in an inverse ratio to the number of changes in text-books occurring in a series of years.

The reason for this is obvious. The school manager who places his reliance upon accessories to good teaching, such as text-books, charts, and appliances, is living in a fog and his horizon is very close to him. He does not have a clear vision of the problem whose solution he seeks.

But there are times when changes are advisable. The superintendent himself should never change text-books. He should see that new text-books which come to him are placed in the hands of his associate teachers, and he should encourage his associates to come to him with their opinions of this book in use or that book which they would like to use. He should watch teachers' private opinion crystallize into public opinion and as it crystallizes he should informally mention to members of his board the facts about this impression that he has derived from the teachers. But he himself should have no opinion as yet. He does not *know* as yet whether a change is advisable. He does not know as yet whether the change would be wise—whether any of the proposed text-books that are before him would subserve the purpose that the teachers anxious for some change have in view. But teachers may become more and more clamorous and the need for a change become more and more apparent. The superintendent should then seek definite criticism of the book in use and definite aims that are to be sought for, in the book which is desired. He will then be in

a position to affirm or negate the necessity for a change. If his decision be affirmative he must, if he does his duty, examine all the latest publications upon the subject in question. It is peculiarly weakening to a superintendent's influence with his committee, when he is strenuously urging a change in text-books, to have to admit that he is unacquainted with some of the latest and most popular books. He should satisfy himself first of the character of the principal text-books on this subject—as to their accuracy, method of treatment, and mechanical features. He should be able to point out their excellence and their weakness. He should then satisfy himself that this book or that book is teachable for a corps of teachers no stronger than that under his charge. The last is a very important consideration.

Having satisfied himself on these questions he should call the attention of the proper authorities, preferably the whole committee, to the prevalence of a desire on the part of the teachers to have a change in the text-book now in use, and ask for a reference of the question to the proper sub-committee. At the meeting of this committee he should present to them a history of the development of this desire for a change on the part of the teachers, together with their reasons for this desire, and the result of his own investigations on the subject. He should be prepared to give definite and explicit reasons for his conclusions. His attitude should not be dogmatic here. Just as able men as he would not for a moment indorse the book that he recommends. Perhaps the same evening a superintendent, wise, able, scholarly, is in an adjoining town recommending that the same book be displaced and some other book adopted. Perhaps in a year the book which he is recommending extravagantly may be more unsatisfactory than the one now in use.

Hence his judgment cannot be absolute, it must be relative—to the best of his judgment and belief. His attitude should be that of an able lawyer to whom one goes for an advice upon a question of law; or comparable with that of an able physician who is called upon for an opinion relative to the trouble which afflicts a patient; or an engineer who is consulted relative to the

best plan for the disposal of sewage in a city where there is no river into which the sewage can be drained.

Why should superintendents and preachers be expected, alone of men, to be removed from the possibility of an error of judgment?

If the superintendent, following some such course, expresses his belief that, on the whole, the interests of the school will be advanced by making the change in question, he will have his advice followed in the large majority of cases. But suppose it is not; he has done his duty, and the responsibility rests with the board of education in whose hands people have placed the caring for these schools. The superintendent should not have any feeling over his failure to secure this change. The probabilities are that it is his own fault because he was not able to convince his committee that the advantages of the change were commensurate with the trouble and expense—other people have their troubles, too. A bookkeeper asked his employer to purchase an “adding machine” for the use of the office. The employer considered the matter and arrived at the conclusion that the cost of the machine was greater than the saving in time that he would gain. A railway manager wanted to build a siding three thousand feet in length upon a part of his line. The finance committee, to whom it was necessary to refer his request, thought that they did not need it and declined to approve. Another railway manager wanted four hundred new freight cars. The finance committee, upon investigation, found that during the greater part of the year there were a large number of empty cars scattered on various sidings over the line of road. They suggested a greater effort to use these cars already in hand and decline to grant the request. The manager of a publishing house recommended that an additional force be employed to increase its sales in a certain district. The owners of the property could not see that there was much prospect for increased sales in that territory and declined to permit such action. Now these men did not get angry and feel that they were terribly aggrieved and that they no longer had any influence and ought to resign. They were used to having their requests edited by their superior officers and,

while feeling that the emergency demanded some action, went cheerfully at work to do the best they could. And strange to say, in some instances they found that they did not really need what they thought they needed.

Criticism of principals and teachers—Such criticism should never be general, but always specific, and always accompanied by a suggestion to remedy the evil complained of. And when this correction is made by the teacher commendation for the effort should be given, even if other conditions are worse than on the preceding visit. These criticisms, or mention of them, should not in the early stages of effort be repeated to the members of the board and certainly not to other teachers. There are times, too, when a good superintendent, like a wise parent, should be both blind and deaf.

There are estimable superintendents who imagine that they must find fault with something at every visit to a school building. Their teachers' meetings degenerate into scolding meetings where faults are paraded in such a manner as greatly to lessen the probability of bettering the work, and greatly to weaken the morale of a corps of teachers.

Properly conducted teachers' meetings are a great source of strength to the manager of a system of schools. But they should not be called except for cause, and the time should not be taken up with readings from the course of study, or many desultory remarks upon the discipline in the schools, or the necessity of maintaining a high standard of punctuality and regularity. Neither should they be allowed to degenerate into a debating society where the participators draw upon their imagination for their facts and their memory for their reasoning.

Unless a superintendent is a practical teacher, a thinker, and an orator he cannot hope to take up three-fourths of the time allotted for the meeting without greatly wearying his audience. There are superintendents, too, who suddenly call a meeting of their teachers with a scant twenty-four hours' notice and fail to realize that there are teachers who, by reason of previous engagements, must make either the superintendent or themselves very uncomfortable. Usually this meeting is so

important that only death would be a valid excuse for a teacher failing to attend. Happy the superintendent who can hold such a meeting often and still retain the confidence of his teachers in his discretion and judgment.

Special teachers—Conflicts of special teachers with the regular teacher growing out of undue pressure, irregular visits, overlapping of recitations, and an undue exercise of the prerogative of a supervisor are a prolific source of trouble to the superintendent. The special teacher should be regarded as an assistant to the superintendent, specially assigned to the teaching of a particular branch. She should not be allowed to experiment upon the schools without first submitting her plans to and gaining the approval of the superintendent. She should have a definite program to suit the convenience of the schools. The length of recitation in the special branch should be fixed. And when the special teacher desires to have a teachers' meeting that meeting should always be called by the superintendent.

I have known many serious petty troubles arise where management of the special teachers was loose and ill-defined.

Board meetings—As a rule the superintendent should give advice when it is asked and very rarely volunteer suggestions. Above all he should not do this second-hand—by whispering to some friend or supporter in the board.

His communications to the board should be handed to the secretary and read as are other official communications. They should not be fathered by any individual or by any faction in the board. As a rule, action should not be asked at the meeting when the matter is introduced, because very few questions can be rightly understood by any body of men until they have had time to reflect upon them. A superintendent is always in great danger when a board of education will adopt any recommendation that he makes simply because the superintendent approves. They will be just as ready at some future time to act just as hastily against him.

He should always endeavor on every question involving his department to secure thoughtful, earnest consideration. Such a habit in a board of education is a bulwark against all attacks upon the schools.

When necessary to give an opinion on any subject asked for in a board meeting the superintendent should not rush into the breach thoughtlessly. He should not pay any attention to the request of an individual member of the board, but wait until the chairman has repeated the member's request or until it comes to him collectively in a semi-official manner.

It is important here that he should give his opinion pleasantly and, if it is not a question of fact, in a manner as far removed from a dogmatic statement as possible. He should not be afraid to say "I do not know," if he does not know. He should not color his reply in any degree by the personal opinion of the man who asks the question. It is a very rare thing for a member of a board of education to become an enemy because of an expression of opinion by the superintendent on a professional matter. It is quite another thing to take issue with the superintendent and combat that opinion. But if the superintendent attempts to log-roll his side of the matter thru the board that is quite another thing, and the large majority of members will become justly angry at such action.

Even the President of the United States has not escaped severe censure when, at rare intervals, he has exerted pressure upon Congress and influenced legislation which would not otherwise be passed. In this country every man is a sovereign, but a sovereign cannot take "tips." So with a superintendent: he can never afford to ask a member of his board to do anything for him, for a teacher, or for schools as a favor. If a superintendent maintains a worthy position in this matter the members of his board will not come to him to ask for favors.

If a superintendent recommends a teacher for promotion, he should not allow that teacher to thank him for what he did. It was not a favor, but a right, and the teacher is indebted to himself for being qualified, not to the superintendent.

A superintendent should not meddle directly or indirectly with the nomination or election of members of the board of education. Success at this game of politics means near and certain failure with loss of self-respect. He can vote as he pleases, but the wise man at the polls in any contest does not tell his wife nor his cousins nor his aunts how he voted.

Neither should he give advice to his teachers or friends how to vote—no matter what the contest may be. It is neither seemly nor proper and, if questioned closely, one can always say that this is a matter for the citizen to decide, keeping in his mind what is best for the school. If this were not wise it is certain that the schoolmaster cannot compete with the politician successfully. And great wrongs have always sought to justify themselves with the maxim that "The end justifies the means."

The superintendent, too, may have a clearly defined opinion that the site for a new school building should be on the northeast corner of certain streets and not upon the northwest or southeast corner. He may, too, have impressions as to which patent heating and ventilating apparatus is the best for this new building. But he cannot demonstrate the validity of his opinion upon such questions with success. Therefore he should let the board of education settle those momentous questions and not allow himself to be placed in the attitude of favoring this or that speculator, this or that manufacturer.

It is within his province to advise his board as to the general location of a school building so that it will best subserve the needs of the schools.

It is within his province to indicate what in his judgment should be the capacity of this school building. It is not a question of great moment to him whether any one of half a dozen styles of school furniture be purchased, or from what quarry the slate for blackboards shall come.

The superintendent should be chary of his promises. He should say to each applicant for a position, "If you are the best fitted for this position, in my judgment, when the committee is ready to act, I will nominate you." He should never threaten a teacher, never tell her he would dismiss her or oppose her election. It might be the best thing for the schools to do what he said he would not do, and he need not cross that river until he comes to the bridge.

The superintendent of one of our large cities recently declined to certificate a very able young woman because she had written an article on the kindergarten which did not meet the

approbation of the superintendent. He is an able man and soon saw the absurdity of his position.

There are times when an unworthy or less worthy teacher may be using political influence to secure a position for which the superintendent has nominated a more worthy teacher. This is a very aggravating situation, but it cannot be remedied by the lobbying of the superintendent nor by the use of political influence on the other side.

When a superintendent takes charge of a school system, too, he too frequently thinks that he should conciliate those who did not vote for him—in other words, attempt to prove to his enemies that they were mistaken. This is always a severe reflection upon a man's discretion and judgment. And when it succeeds it has the tendency to alienate one's former friends. A superintendent should never allow himself to distinguish officially between those who supported him and those who did not. Popularity never comes to him who seeks it; it is an elusive phantom which follows him only who does his duty and performs the functions devolving upon him in a creditable manner. I am referring, of course, to popularity apart from the personal element in a man which, however, cannot be acquired and cannot be consciously heightened.

When a sub-committee takes action against a recommendation of the superintendent, information of this action should not "leak out" thru him. Neither should he lobby against the adoption of this report. He should, however, hold himself in readiness to express his conviction upon the matter when asked by the board.

It should never be forgotten that men on boards of education and boards of finance, etc., no longer care whether an executive officer agrees with them or not, so far as personal feeling is concerned. They do object to any unfair efforts on his part to carry into effect his views; they reserve such use or abuse of power for themselves. There isn't a month in the year when the board of control of a great corporation or firm does not vote down a recommendation of their manager. And they are just as stupid at times in their action as members of boards of education. It always has been so and it always will

be so. The difference between the attitude of the manager in private life and the manager of a school system, under such circumstances, is very pronounced. But there are few corporations or firms which would not instantly accept the resignation of a manager if he showed petulance or irritation, or if he gave the board its choice of alternatives—*i. e.*, Either pass my request or accept my resignation.

Where a manager has great power placed in his hands by the board of education he should be cautious about the exercise of that power.

It is very easy, when the superintendent has power to order supplies, printing, and to incur other expenses, for him to grow careless and extravagant. It is very easy for him to spend a few minutes with the chairman of the proper committee and secure his approval before acting. It may seem a little matter to him when he wants to hire a hall, have some printing done, to make a commotion about a little stretch of authority. But within this year just such an abuse of power vested in a man was the basis for the movement which caused his undoing. A wise public official is he who can show a voucher for every transaction of a financial character and explicit authority for every act outside of routine, and whose affairs and acts as an official are always open to investigation. Any public official is taking unnecessary chances when he cannot at any time welcome an investigation with confidence that it will disclose only wise use of power.

Tho somewhat prolix, I trust that I have been able to make clear what I mean by the minor troubles in the administration of school affairs. These are matters, too, which render difficult and trying the management of any firm or corporation. That any man can successfully handle all of these multifarious details is not to be expected. But it should be reasonably expected that a manager will attempt to solve them from a wise standpoint. Then employers, whether public or private, will have respect for the effort and not be extreme in their idea of punishment for failure.

I have seen each one of these comparatively petty things work the undoing of a superintendent, and it does seem to a

layman that inability to grapple with the everyday simple problems of administration is more largely responsible for failure than conflict upon great principles between a superintendent and his board of education. As these are difficulties incident to all business they cannot be cured by legislation. The direction reform should take should not be that of making an officer immune from the effect of these errors, but rather in the direction of distributing the errors over a greater surface and therefore sharing them with the members of his board. But this, as Kipling would say, is another story.

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IV

A NEW REVIVAL

Do the parents, teachers, and school officers of our land realize the profound significance of the change now taking place in our secondary education? Do they also realize that the change is not caused by external advice or compulsion, but is being brought about spontaneously by silent forces of great energy, working over the country generally, affecting the inner scholastic life, shaping the substance and spirit of instruction probably for a long time to come, and above all, do they fully realize that this notable occurrence, alike radical and conservative in its effects, is of a very hopeful and reassuring character?

No doubt many do see these facts and see them with clearness, tho there has been much dust and noise of discussion, enough to cloud the vision and dull the hearing of anyone. The almost endless series of committees, designated by numerical titles, the conferences of local, provincial, and even national importance, and the discussions and reports printed in bewildering abundance of late, have done vast good, no doubt, and will do more. But, after all, it is not these agencies which have wrought the change. Their value, so far as they have value, lies in the fact that, having been called into existence by the prevailing unrest, they are discerning what the change is and what organic form it is tending to assume; thus helping high schools and academies to range themselves along the lines of the new system which is emerging.

The obvious cause of the change is twofold: first, the unprecedented increase in enrollment of pupils and, second, dissatisfaction with the lack of sound educational character in many school programs of study. As for the first cause, little need be said beyond citing the statistics for the eight years reported since the opening of this decade. In the school year 1889-90 our secondary schools enrolled 297,894 pupils. In 1897-98

the enrollment had risen to 554,814,—a gain of eighty-six per cent.,—a rate that means doubling in ten years, and that also means a growth four or five times more rapid than the rate of increase in population. This huge gain, for so it may be called without exaggeration, was found to be widely distributed. It was most marked in the Middle West in connection with the public high schools, and least marked in the private Eastern academies. Nevertheless, the gain is not localized or sporadic, but national. Such a widely diffused increase has naturally compelled attention to the problem of organizing the resources of the secondary schools in order to cope successfully with this increasing host of pupils. And this brings us at once to the second cause of the change now in progress, namely, dissatisfaction with former school programs of study. There were too many studies crowded into the program. Congestion had followed attempted condensation. It was becoming hard to find time to teach any subject in the free and ample way which alone gives permanent satisfaction. It was likewise found impossible to boil down the essence of studies into small volume and then administer the concentrated extract as daily scholastic food to the satisfaction of anyone, whether scholar, teacher, or parent. There was nothing else left to do, when the studies were thus deprived of the space they needed, than to teach the program in bare outline, or superficially, or sometimes in fragments. An ill-related smattering of many things instead of a full and gratifying knowledge of a few things of the most worth—this is the evil against which sound teachers had been protesting for years and too often protesting in vain.

It was inevitable this evil should afflict the schools for a time. The multiplication of studies, due to the general advance of knowledge, is the root of the trouble. School programs did not indeed attempt to embrace the *omne scibile*, but they tried to embrace almost all that was teachable. And this, tho the laws of nature stood in the way, unobserved because invisible to those who could see nothing except programs crowded with as many studies as could be got in. Of course the list of teachable studies might be lengthened

indefinitely with the extension of modern knowledge. But the hours of the day and the quantity of the pupils' working power exhibited no such coefficient of elasticity. These remained as obstinate constants in the problem, and against them school programs rebelled in vain. And since in the long run it was bound to appear that the program should be made for the pupil, rather than the pupil for the program, attention began to be centered in the making of a program or programs that should serve to furnish pupils with the knowledge that should be of most worth, rather than with an assortment of samples. In other words American opinion is moving steadily, and we think at last irresistibly, toward the sound elementary and elemental conviction that the best thing for the mass of pupils in secondary schools is a program consisting of a few well-related studies of central importance, instead of a miscellany.

Thus the two causes combine in one. The unprecedented increase of enrollment has been able to compel attention to what the best teachers all along were wanting, but could not effect unaided. It is, in fact, compelling a general rearrangement of courses of study on the lines of selection and structural combination.

Courses of study! A dry enough subject to most, and somewhat analogous as interesting reading to the details of a tariff bill or an arid psychological novel. But not so dry, when we are affected practically. And so it happens that the rapidly increasing multitude of scholars in our secondary schools is literally "bringing home" the importance of the program of studies, not only to more teachers, but to more parents than ever before. It is not without significance that it was the request of parents in the city of Chicago which enabled thousands of children to begin Latin earlier than the regular high-school course. It is not without significance that the present awakening of interest centers itself on the question of programs. For if our programs are to have rational meaning they ought to be something more than awkward distributions of the disjointed parts of school study. They ought to mean nothing less than the closest attainable conformity to a sound theory of education. If this is not what they are

designed to embody, what valuable use do they serve? Certainly no genuinely educational use.

What knowledge is of most worth? How shall it be coordinated so as to produce the best results? These are the old and cardinal questions in a school program and in the intellectual education of everyone. In the sphere of the secondary education a right answer to the first question determines what studies ought to be pursued, and a right answer to the second question determines the arrangement of the school program or programs. And in adult life the answer given to these questions settles every man's intellectual fate. School questions have a very serious aspect after all. If only the strong practical sense of American parents could be supplemented by a little theoretical appreciation of the life-long importance of *what* their children study as well as how they do it, the arrangement of school studies would be made much easier.

So then the change, superficially observed, is a change in programs. But what sort of a change? Is it another patching or revisional makeshift? Neither of these, or it would merit little notice. It has a radical look. The old school programs are passing away, bit by bit. The many 'ologies that have encumbered the course are being swept out. The day of many simultaneous studies is passing away. But the radicalism of the change is only on the surface. True, it is cutting away excrescences, root and branch. Yet the trend of the movement is conservative. Not conservative in the sense of rehabilitating a state of things that once existed, but in the sense that our secondary education is spontaneously tending to organize itself according to a tried historical principle. What is that principle? It is that the best secondary education is represented in a scheme which consists of a few central studies. Whether or no there are several types of "best" is not the question here. But the essential idea is that no type of secondary education is excellent unless it secures training in the leading categories of knowledge and secures it by means of those studies which experience has tested and found best fitted to achieve this result. Of course this is only saying again the

A B C, saying what Germany, France, and England have been saying to us for generations, and saying what our own experience has been teaching us, tho in an imperfect degree and with much waste and loss.

Is there sufficient evidence, then, that this trend of things is becoming strongly marked among us? Is attention being more and more concentrated on a few well-related leading studies, studies which have been important in the best modern education? Let us see. If we turn to the table at the end of this paper and take out all the secondary studies for which statistics are available from 1889-90 to 1897-98 and set them down in a column according to their rate of increase in enrollment of pupils, we shall find the figures and percentages of increase to be as follows:

STUDIES	ENROLLMENT IN 1889-90	ENROLLMENT IN 1897-98	PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE
1. Latin.....	100,144	274,293	174
2. History (except U. S.)...	82,909	209,034	152
3. Geometry.....	59,781	147,515	147
4. Algebra.....	127,397	306,755	141
5. German.....	34,208	78,994	131
6. French.....	28,032	58,165	107
7. Greek.....	12,869	24,994	94
8. Physics.....	63,644	113,650	79
9. Chemistry.....	28,665	47,448	65

The importance of the figures is the more evident when we bear in mind that the rate of increase in the total enrollment of pupils from 297,894 in 1889-90 to 554,814 in 1897-98 is 86 per cent. But certain studies are growing faster than this; some of them much faster. Latin, to the surprise of many, heads the list with its literally enormous gain of 174 per cent., a rate fully double the 86 per cent. which represents the eight-year increase in the total number of pupils. Next comes history with 152 per cent., then the two mathematical disciplines (geometry with 147 and algebra with 141), and then German with 131. After these we find French with 107 and Greek with 94. All these and only these exceed the average. Physics and chemistry close the list somewhat below.

It may perhaps be thought that if we had the figures from

1889-90 to 1897-98 for all the other secondary studies things might look different. So they might, but we have no reason to think they would. For altho figures for the other studies are not obtainable for the whole eight years mentioned, they are available for the last three years (1894-95 to 1897-98) of this period for all the other studies of any note, excepting English literature and civics. But a glance at the table on p. 261 will show that not one of them shows an extraordinary rate of gain. Every one of them, if their rates of gain for the three years reported are estimated as three-eighths of their gain for the eight years, fall below the eighty-six per cent., and some of them (astronomy and geology) are falling behind very rapidly. The list of these studies is as follows: Astronomy, physical geography, geology, physiology, psychology, rhetoric. Trigonometry really belongs with these, tho its statistics are given for six years (1891-92 to 1897-98).

One other caution should be taken before interpreting our figures finally. Where does English come in? Of course it comes in largely, and under the two divisions of English literature and rhetoric. The figures we have are not sufficient for drawing conclusions so fully as in the case of the other studies. Separate figures for English literature appear for one year only, the last of the eight years (1897-98), and consequently the rate of gain cannot be calculated. But be it large, moderate, or small, it will not detract from the exceptional value of the gains in Latin, history, geometry, algebra, German, French, and even Greek. Still it is a pity we do not know distinctly just what the gain in English literature amounts to. If it be very large, then we must add one more to our list of leading studies showing great increase. Rhetoric, the other side of English, seems to be gaining at about the average rate.

To return then to our list of studies showing the most rapid growth in the eight years since 1889-90. What are they? The classics, mathematics, history, and modern languages. Just these and nothing else, unless we take the risk of adding English. Latin is at the head and Greek at the end of this line of seven victorious racers. History is a good second, with geometry and algebra almost abreast for third place.

Then, at intervals, come German and French. That Greek is last need not be wondered at. The wonder is that Greek is surpassing the average rate of eighty-six per cent. What study subjected to such severe assault from friends of other studies and foes of classical culture, and from philistines generally, could be expected to do more than survive? But Greek has done more. It has revived, as it has done many times before. Tho it is still weak in point of the number of pupils, and will always be relatively small in total enrollment, still it is alive and in the list of winners.

But look at Latin.¹ Not only is its rate of gain greatest, but it actually enrolls more pupils than any other secondary study except algebra and possibly English. The figures for Latin are 274,293; for algebra they are 306,755. Latin also enrolls twice as many pupils as French and German combined. The "parent language" does seem at last to be getting the parent's share. Then consider the prospective effect of the enormous enrollment in Latin on the fortunes of Greek. A certain percentage of those who study Latin are sure to study Greek. The demand of Latin for its own complete integrity cannot be met without Greek any more than chemistry can get along without physics or archæology without history. The greater, therefore, the number of pupils in Latin the more will the enrollment in Greek be helped.

But if some think that the small total enrollment in Greek is disappointing in a way, let us compare its numbers with some other lightly attended studies. Take all the enrollments of this character in 1897-98:

Greek	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	24,994
Trigonometry	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	15,719
Astronomy	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	24,433
Geology	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	25,851
Psychology	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	20,198

The one important thing to observe in this connection is that Greek alone of these minor enrollments is gaining faster than the average, and all the others are falling behind.

Surely there is enough in such facts to make any man ask what is the secret of the survival and revival of Greek after all

¹ See table on p. 256.

the attacks that have been made upon it in our time. Would any other study, having no utilitarian considerations to support it, have stood the strain? Is not the secret this: that Greek is intrinsically so excellent that it is bound to prove itself attractive from age to age to a certain class of finer minds? Who that has taught both Latin with Greek and Latin without Greek to boys in any high school or academy can ever be persuaded to think otherwise?

Passing to the other studies, it is most gratifying to find history assuming its proper place. Not alone because it is a fine study, but because it has such intimate relation to the whole humanistic side of education. History and the classics, history and modern languages, history and English—how finely all these combinations blend! Then the two mathematical disciplines are well up with the general increase in our favored group of studies. And again we note the value of the great gain in mathematics in its relations to other subjects. Mathematics and classics is a combination known of old. Mathematics and modern languages—how often these go together to-day!

These are commonplaces of education, it is true—old, trite, hackneyed, but not obsolete. What is happening is something elemental. Well-tried studies are disengaging themselves from the mass of less relevant subjects and are “mem-bering” themselves into a body of studies of most worth. They are coming together as the primary material for our programs. Leave Greek aside for the present, because of its small enrollment and because it has been the subject of so much controversy. Is there any insuperable difficulty now remaining to prevent the construction of well-balanced courses of study out of the other elements, adding perhaps a few accessory studies? English, Latin, French, German, history, algebra, and geometry co-ordinated thru the four years of a high school or academy will surely furnish a good education of a fairly definite modern type. There is still room left for some science to be added, say physics and chemistry and physiology. Why add any odds and ends to such a fine list?

To make a classical course becomes equally easy. Omit French or German and give the time used for science to Greek,

—for those who take the classical course will get or can get plenty of science in college. Perhaps a third type can be made, leaving out Latin and Greek. Such courses hitherto have been lamentably weak and largely attended. But they will at least be better than they have been, if only a few studies are allowed to enter and these studies are given full time.

Selection of the studies best fitted to survive and their combinations in structural programs representing leading types of education is the plain, sensible moral of the situation.

A word in closing in regard to the outlook for the classics. Latin is evidently taking care of itself and helping take care of Greek. This present drift of things naturally pleases all of us who love the classics and believe that they constitute an essential part in the best type of liberal culture the world has yet known. But our believing so and saying so will not convince men and women who know nothing and care nothing about Greek and Latin, or who know about them tho they know little of them, and prefer other things. We must convince all who care to know about these matters that Latin and Greek are really one study,—the classics,—and that, therefore, there should be a program which allows the classics their place. We must show that this twofold classical unit has rational relations of the most intimate kind with pure mathematics and pure science, which we likewise believe essential to the best liberal culture. We must show that the cause of disinterested scientific thinking, as distinguished from technical or commercial science, has close affiliations with classical education, and that the history of modern science will prove this to be true. We must also show the immense advantage the classics give a man in his English. As for history and philosophy we need not concern ourselves so much, for their good and evil are commonly admitted to be our good and evil. Nor is the problem of the modern languages a hard one. Surely we can show that a knowledge of Latin and Greek does no damage to a scholar's French and German. But when all this has been done we must finally rest our case before school authorities and the general public on something else, on an insistent plea for a rational organization of school programs of

TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER AND PER CENT. OF STUDENTS IN THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
IN THE UNITED STATES PURSUING CERTAIN STUDIES, 1890-98

	1889-90		1890-91		1891-92		1892-93		1893-94		1894-95		1895-96		1896-97		1897-98	
	Number of students	Per cent. to total	Number of students	Per cent. to total	Number of students	Per cent. to total	Number of students	Per cent. to total	Number of students	Per cent. to total	Number of students	Per cent. to total	Number of students	Per cent. to total	Number of students	Per cent. to total	Number of students	Per cent. to total
Total number of secondary students...	297,894		309,996		340,295		356,398		407,919		468,445		487,147		517,066		554,814	
Number studying—																		
Latin.....	100,144	33.62	123,376	39.80	132,036	38.80	149,473	41.94	177,898	43.59	205,906	43.76	225,164	46.22	248,250	48.01	274,203	49.44
Greek.....	12,869	4.32	14,402	4.65	15,940	4.68	17,534	4.92	20,353	4.99	22,159	4.73	22,304	4.58	23,805	4.60	24,994	4.50
French.....	28,032	9.41	28,090	9.06	29,244	8.59	35,425	9.94	42,072	10.31	45,746	9.77	49,293	10.13	51,596	9.98	58,165	10.45
German.....	34,208	11.48	48,506	15.68	39,505	11.61	46,331	13.00	52,152	12.78	58,021	12.58	64,207	13.20	71,151	13.76	78,994	14.24
Algebra.....	127,397	42.77	154,647	49.89	162,135	47.65	177,913	49.92	215,023	52.71	245,465	52.40	260,490	53.46	280,358	54.22	306,755	55.20
Geometry.....	59,781	20.07	71,421	23.04	76,625	22.52	86,818	24.36	103,054	25.25	114,813	24.51	125,237	25.71	135,668	26.24	147,515	26.59
Trigonometry.....			10,085	2.96			12,865	3.61	15,500	3.80	15,243	3.25	15,328	3.15	15,909	3.08	15,719	2.83
Astronomy.....											24,690	5.27	25,272	5.19	25,263	4.89	24,433	4.40
Physics.....	63,644	21.36	71,473	23.06	75,002	22.04	79,398	22.25	97,974	24.02	103,768	22.15	106,427	21.85	107,093	20.89	113,050	20.48
Chemistry.....	28,665	9.62	32,162	10.37	34,295	10.08	35,568	9.98	42,060	10.31	43,607	9.31	44,597	9.15	47,461	9.18	47,448	8.55
Phys. geography.....											105,124	22.44	121,464	24.93	127,398	24.64	134,082	24.33
Geology.....											25,066	5.52	25,330	5.20	25,596	4.93	25,851	4.66
Physiology.....											131,304	28.03	151,391	31.08	155,002	29.08	162,990	29.38
Psychology.....											15,977	3.35	18,621	3.82	19,768	3.82	20,108	3.64
Rhetoric.....											146,672	31.31	157,268	32.27	174,649	33.78	195,848	35.30
English literature.....																		
History (other than United States)....	82,009	27.53	92,272	29.77	106,666	31.35	119,250	33.46	145,939	35.78	162,336	34.65	174,070	35.73	186,581	36.08	209,034	37.68
Civics.....																	118,807	21.41

These statistics have been furnished by the United States Commissioner of Education, and are brought down to a year later than his last published Report.

study. The classics do not constitute an isolated question. They are an inseparable part of the larger question: Is there or is there not a distinct leading type of modern liberal education in which the classics are an essential part? Only an affirmative answer can be given. Then why not organize this type according to the laws of its own life in a well-balanced course of study? Why not give it free play in order to enable it to do its best? Instead of trimming and paring it down and mixing incongruous things in with it, let it be organized solely out of its own elements. Let it be organized by those who believe in it. They know their business quite as well as the promoters of other courses, advertised to be "as good as" the classical, know theirs. And in the interests of clearness and common sense why not insist to the end that the old, self-renewing and therefore ever new course in liberal studies, whose object is not to give a good education, but the best education, whose constituents are the ancient and modern literatures, mathematics, pure science, philosophy, and history—the one course which has a great record and which constitutes a noble type—shall stand forth for inspection alone by itself, undisguised and free from foreign admixture, and shall alone be marked at its completion by its own historic degree—the degree of bachelor of arts.

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V

THE HARVARD REFORM IN ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

By vote of May 15, 1899, the Faculty of Arts and Sciences of Harvard University, after four years and a half of agitation and many months of debate, completed a new scheme of requirements for entrance both for Harvard College and for the Lawrence Scientific School. Altho the new arrangement is less radical than the requirements of several other universities, and notably of Leland Stanford, it signalizes a change in the frame of mind of a large majority of the Harvard faculty, and it brings the university into more intimate and natural relations with the body of secondary schools.

One of the things of which Harvard is proud is the untrammelled right of independent judgment and expression of opinion among its officers: every man speaks for himself; and the writer of this article has no authority to represent or voice the sentiments of any other persons and takes all responsibility for errors of observation or of deduction which herein may appear. Many of his colleagues adopt an entirely different and less cheerful view of the whole proceeding, and will doubtless in due time express their convictions in their own way.

To understand the nature of the changes just made it is necessary to know something of the form of government of the university, and the methods by which the public opinion of the instructors, the alumni, and the general public is brought to bear upon an ancient and conservative institution. The self-perpetuating corporation of seven members has the sole management of the finances of the university, and also makes all important appointments, and it is a very efficient, vigorous, and far-sighted body; on matters educational, the corporation is popularly supposed to be a "We are seven"; the president's great experience in such questions, and the intimacy of discussions in a small body, give great effect to his recom-

mendations on choice, preparation, and duration of studies; and he is usually able to carry the corporation with him. The board of overseers of thirty members, one-sixth renewed every year, and elected by the college alumni present in Cambridge on commencement day, is composed chiefly of Boston gentlemen of the strictest Harvard sect, and occupies in the university much the position of a large board of directors in a railway company. They listen, suggest, confirm nominations (and in the rarest instances reject them), and when changes of policy are suggested, may veto them, if sufficiently interested and sufficiently confident of alumni opinion.

The exact relation of the overseers to the rest of the management is not constitutionally defined, but they certainly hold, and have exercised, power to stay the action of the other governing boards upon such questions as the establishing of a three-years' A. B. course, and changes in entrance requirements. The faculties of the various departments of the university are so separate that only in a few instances is the same person a member of two faculties; but the college and the scientific school are manned jointly by a large, lively, and discursive Faculty of Arts and Sciences of more than a hundred members. For general questions affecting several departments of learning, such as the law school and the college, or the medical school and dental school, there is an inactive university council; but practically such matters are adjusted thru the corporation, or by joint committees reporting to their two bodies. The faculties are all tenacious of their powers and privileges, and the Faculty of Arts and Sciences is a body very receptive of new ideas, which proves all things, intending to hold fast to that which is good. It has been said that it would solemnly debate a proposition to turn the university into an almshouse, and would not consider the subject disposed of without a formal vote by yeas and nays.

The real incitement to a change in entrance requirements has been the Report of the Committee of Ten, published in 1894. Altho numerous instructors of Harvard were members of the various conferences which prepared the sub-reports published with that document, the number who felt that Harvard might

apply the principles of the report to its own relations with the secondary schools was at first small; and it required a large expenditure of vitality to bring the individual teachers and departments to the point of facing those parts of the question which especially concerned them. Hence, altho a committee of eleven was appointed from the faculty in the fall of 1894 to prepare a new scheme of entrance requirements based on recommendations made in each subject by the department concerned, it was not until two years later that the committee made its report. Discussion in the faculty lasted thru 1896-97. In June, 1897, definitions of the subjects for examination were adopted; and in May, 1899, after a parliamentary controversy with the overseers, the necessary combination of subjects was ordained.

Certainly no question has ever been more carefully discussed by the Harvard faculty, and all the modifications or substitutes for the committee's plan that the human mind could frame were at one time or another presented, and voted upon, and voted down. At times the difference of opinion grew interestingly acute, as when one gentleman frankly owned that his own state of mind on a particular point was "shameful,"—perhaps a more explicit form of Commissioner Roosevelt's comment on the triumph of Tammany: "My sentiments are unfit for publication." But, as usually happens after a great constitutional struggle, even the opponents of the measure are glad to have the question settled and out of the way, and there is every disposition to give the new system a trial on its merits.

One reason for the intensity of the debate was the purpose of the faculty to make actual any requirements that might be adopted on paper. Harvard and Yale, in the opinion of the certificate colleges, are "Ephraim wedded to his idols;" and almost the only thing not proposed in the discussion was some plan of entrance to college on evidence not actually examined by Harvard authorities; hence one of the most difficult questions was how to state the definitions in each subject so that they might be reasonably tested by examination.

The discussion of entrance requirements is not a new thing at Harvard. During the last thirty years there appear to have

been but twelve years in which some change has not been made, either in the definition of individual subjects or in the combinations of subjects. In 1872 alternatives were first allowed; in 1874 English became an admission subject, the division of the examination into preliminary and final was permitted, and sight translations appeared; in 1875 modern languages came in; from 1876, elementary science. A great step was taken in 1878, when a system of so-called advanced subjects was introduced, thru which the college required a choice out of a list of subjects, which should be extensions of some of the elementary required studies. Thus, up to 1887, Harvard steadily advanced in the number of subjects required, in the thoroness of preparation in each; and in a method of combination of elementary subjects with elective advanced subjects.

In 1887 came the first pitched battle between the old-fashioned classical training and the advocates of newer branches. The immediate incitement was undoubtedly the famous address of Charles Francis Adams on "The College Fetish," in which he told the truth, as he saw it, about the feeble effect of classical training, whether in school or college. The strife was long and an adjustment very difficult. The traditions of five centuries were behind those who insisted that there could be no liberal education without some knowledge of both Latin and Greek. At that time the scientific school was a small and highly technical concern, managed by a separate faculty, and furnishing an intellectual training much inferior to that of the college. Hence it was not possible to turn toward the B. S. degree all the ambitious boys who came without Greek, and eventually the chief champions of scientific learning were glad to accept a compromise by which a boy might enter Harvard College without having studied Greek at all, but must expiate his impiety by exhibiting a mind steeped in mathematics or mathematics and science. The normal method of entering college since 1887 had been to offer the five languages,—English, Latin, Greek, German, French (either German or French could be postponed to the freshman year),—history (for the first time English and American history were made an alternative to ancient), algebra, plane geometry, and a scientific subject.

In addition two advanced subjects must be taken; but if Greek were omitted four advanced subjects must be offered, of which two must be mathematics, or mathematics and science. Starting *de novo* with an individual boy, the simplest and easiest way to prepare him for Harvard College has been to give him Greek, if a good teacher could be had; and only one-twentieth of the candidates have sought the roundabout and mountainous passage which avoids Hellas.

Under this system, which has been in force down to and thru the examinations of 1899, the actual difficulty of entering Harvard College is measured by three elements. The first is the requirements in the individual subjects—requirements phrased in carefully stated definitions, exemplified by examination papers, and in practice applied by the passing standard of the examiners. The second element is the combination of subjects, in which they are two opportunities for choice: first, the right to omit an ancient or a modern language or both; and second, the right to choose advanced subjects according to one's bent, except in the case of those who omit Greek; and, in general, the substitute for Greek has been considered harder than Greek itself. The third element is the administration of the admission examination as a whole, and the number of conditions allowed: during the last ten years this important function has been performed by a committee consisting of one member from each department of learning represented in the examinations, presided over by the dean of the college. That committee takes responsibility for the papers, settles questions of general policy, and treats individual doubtful cases upon their merits.

In the long run, therefore, the question whether an ill-prepared boy will get into Harvard College or fail, depends upon a complexity of influences, the most important of which is the committee on entrance examinations. The masters and teachers in the great fitting schools have learned the standard of that committee, which is reasonably steady, and can pretty closely predict whether a boy is or is not likely to get safely thru the ordeal. Whatever have been the Harvard requirements and the Harvard system of applying them, from year to

year, it has been followed also by Radcliffe College, and in 1899 over sixteen hundred persons took entrance examinations, preliminary or final, in one of the two institutions.

This long preliminary statement is necessary as a basis from which to consider the new system, which is in several respects a great departure from the methods of the last twelve years. First, in order of time and of logic, is the change in definitions; a change described in detail in an article in the *EDUCATIONAL REVIEW* for October, 1897. The process of adding subjects to the required list came to an end in 1887, when it included English, Latin, Greek or a substitute, German or French, algebra, plane geometry, and elementary science. This seems to candidates a formidable list, and in the discussion of the last four years there has been an effort to diminish it; hence the faculty in 1897 voted to make history and algebra optional, but in both cases were defeated by the overseers, who positively insisted that nobody could be considered fitted for college who was not acquainted with those subjects. What could be done, and what has been done, is, therefore, to revise the definitions so as to bring preparation in all the required subjects, and also in the optional subjects, into line with the improvements in teaching practiced by schools, or suggested by the various educational reports. The new definitions are more elaborate than the old; many of them specify definite quantities of reading matter and the like. Nearly every department insists that its own new definition asks not for more work than the old, but for more enlightened work. Entrance history is undeniably increased in difficulty, altho the department of history feels sure that the subject now stands where it ought always to have been, parallel in difficulty with French or German or algebra.

The next question is: What subjects are allowed?

As may be seen from the following table, a considerable number of branches not before allowed to candidates have been defined and placed on the list. Besides six technical subjects, available only for the scientific school, there is one humanity subject (advanced history) and five new scientific subjects (anatomy, physiology, and hygiene; physiography; meteorology; botany, and zoölogy).

LIST OF AVAILABLE ENTRANCE SUBJECTS

IN THE OLD LIST ONLY	COMMON TO BOTH LISTS	IN THE NEW LIST ONLY
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	English	
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Advanced Greek	Elementary Greek	
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	Greek composition	
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	Elementary Latin	
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Latin composition	Advanced Latin	
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	Elementary German	
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	Advanced German	
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	Elementary French	
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	Advanced French	
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	Elementary history	Advanced history
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	Elementary algebra	
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	Advanced algebra	
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Solid geometry	Plane geometry	Geometry
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Analytic geometry	Logarithms and trigonometry	
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Astronomy and physics	Experimental physics	Astronomy
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	Advanced physics	
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	Chemistry	
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	Physiography	
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	Meteorology	
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	Anatomy, physiology, and hygiene	
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	Botany	
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	Zoölogy	
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	Wood-working	
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	Blacksmithing	
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	Chipping, filing, and fitting	
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	Machine-tool work	
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	Freehand drawing	
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	Projections	
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The systematizing and strengthening of the individual subjects thru new definitions has made much more difficult the third problem, that of adjusting a new combination. It is an unwritten principle that the total intellectual effort required to enter Harvard College ought not to be made greater. If the sum of the required subjects is an increasing variable, the only

way to keep up the balance is to diminish the necessary total of options. Under the original system, where every subject was required of every boy, there was no question of equivalence. History might be easier than French, and French than algebra, and algebra than Greek, and Greek than Latin, but the boy had to deliver the whole tale of brick, large and small. But since 1887, under the system of a block of required subjects combined with a group of optionals out of which a certain number must be chosen, it has been necessary to fix numerical values and the subjects have been rudely divided into one-hour subjects (French, German, algebra, geometry, history, and analytic geometry), and two-hour subjects (English, Latin, Greek, and most of the advanced subjects). The result has been a tendency to equalize the difficulty of subjects in the same group. This is especially the case in history, which was originally ancillary to the classics, but now claims a position of equal dignity with other "one-hour subjects."

One of the changes of 1899 is to make four categories instead of two, so that we now have one-point subjects (anatomy, etc.; physiography, solid geometry, advanced algebra, trigonometry, astronomy, and meteorology), two-point subjects (elementary algebra, French, German, geometry, history, physics, chemistry, and the rest of the advanced subjects), one three-point subject (geometry), and three four-point subjects (English, Latin, and Greek). In options the principle is that any combination aggregating two, three, or four points may balance or replace any other combination of the same total. The whole combination may perhaps be more clearly stated in a table:

FOR ENTRANCE TO HARVARD COLLEGE

I. REQUIRED STUDIES (18 points)

A. Absolutely prescribed studies (6 points)

English.....	4 points
Elementary algebra.....	2 "

B. A Choice out of prescribed alternatives (12 points)

An ancient language (elementary Latin or elementary Greek.....	4 points
A modern language (elementary French or elementary German).....	2 "

Geometry (plane), 2; Geometry (including some solid geometry), 3. The latter may be substituted with a count of 3.....	2 points
History (ancient, or English and American).....	2 "
An observational science or sciences (elementary physics, 2; or chemistry, 2; or physiography, 1; or anatomy, physiology, and hygiene, 1).....	2 "

II. OPTIONAL STUDIES (8 points)

C. *Elementary alternative subjects* so far as not made use of in Group B (not to exceed 4 points)

Greek or Latin.....	4 points
German or French.....	2 "
Geometry, instead of plane geometry.....	1 "
Physics.....	2 "
Botany.....	2 "
Chemistry.....	2 "
Physiography.....	1 "
Anatomy, physiology, and hygiene.....	1 "

D. *Advanced subjects* (at least 4 points)

Greek (including optional composition).....	2 points
Latin (including composition).....	2 "
German.....	2 "
French.....	2 "
History (choice out of four subjects).....	2 "
Algebra.....	1 "
Logarithms and trigonometry.....	1 "
Astronomy.....	1 "
Physics.....	2 "
Meteorology.....	1 "

This little table represents the result of long debate.

The first question to be decided was whether the faculty would adhere to its previous system of a small group of required subjects, plus a choice out of an optional list. The only possible alternatives were a return to the old system of a fixed list with no options, thus throwing away the advance of twenty years; or to adopt the Leland Stanford system of a "free list" of entrance subjects, out of which any may be chosen which add up to a minimum aggregate of points. Many members of the faculty inclined to this idea; even some of the classical men liked it, and there was a time when it seemed likely to find favor with the majority. The objection which settled the question without a thoro discussion was that the overseers would never agree to such a radical change; and the event proved that the caution was more than justified. The faculty was hence necessarily thrown back upon some

amendment of the previously existing system of a fixed list plus selection from an optional list.

The question of options necessarily involved the question, What subjects should be included in the fixed list? and thus raised the very weighty and hotly contested issue of the status of Greek, in which the whole controversy of classical training was discussed to the roots. Under the system of 1887 it was felt by many persons that classics had in three respects an undue preference: First, elementary Greek was valued as equivalent to English or Latin, altho the time bestowed upon it in the schools was considerably less; second, the candidate who omitted Greek was obliged to make out a special case by presenting extra mathematics, or mathematics and science; third, an additional credit was given not only for advanced Greek and Latin, but also for Greek and Latin composition. The combined effect of these advantages was that a boy who passed examination on four years' study of Latin and three years' of Greek, got credit for ten-seventeenths of the total requirement for entrance. In adjusting the relative weight of the various studies, the only criterion which the committee or the faculty thought safe was the number of recitation periods commonly given to each subject by schools. Hence the committee of eleven reported that in the scale of numerical equivalents Greek should count but for three, Latin or English four, French or German two. A similar correction was applied to the advanced subjects, most of which represented only one year's study beyond the corresponding elementary study, yet were valued as equivalent to elementary French or algebra. The combined effect of the reratings is that the total count available from four years of Latin and three of Greek is six-thirteenthths of the total entrance requirement.

The scale was not very odious to most of the classical men, but they protested warmly and unceasingly against the principle that there was to be no penalty upon the boy who took advantage of the permission to leave out Greek. The theory seemed to be that if a boy had not a classical mind he must have a mathematical mind; miscellaneous-minded boys, or historically-minded boys were not to be encouraged. Of

course the question was deeper and was more deeply discussed; it really turned upon the educative influence of classics in comparison with other subjects; on the advantage to mankind of having a similar, even tho a narrow, range of knowledge on the part of the educated professional men, on the literary effect of a study of the great masters of style. It was interesting to observe that nearly all the members of the English department were valiant champions of classics, on the ground that the best preparation for writing and appreciating good English is a study of Greek and Latin masters. Notwithstanding the undertow against classics, which has been strong enough to force from many of the universities of the country some kind of A. B. without studying Greek in college, and even without having studied Greek in schools, Harvard College has stood by its classical requirements in the case of nineteen-twentieths of its candidates; yet has spread its roots, constantly deeper and wider, thruout the country. While the Harvard faculty contains a considerable number of men of scientific status who have only the S. B. training, at least nine-tenths of the members have had the advantage of classical training in schools and colleges, and might be expected to stand by their own experience.

When it came to a test vote, however, it proved that a very large number of men who had studied and even had profited by the Greek language did not consider it any longer essential to the training of the most highly educated men, and the decisive votes were about five to two against retaining in any form a privileged status for Greek. A scheme was finally adopted which gives to elementary Greek four points, the same rating as Latin or English; but a boy who does not take it may substitute any combination of subjects (outside the strictly required list), which aggregates four points; for instance, he may offer advanced history and advanced French instead of Greek; he may offer astronomy, advanced physics, and meteorology; he may offer botany and chemistry. Greek is now in all essential particulars an optional subject for candidates for the A. B. course at Harvard.

No one can safely analyze the grounds for such a change of

front. One reason, doubtless, is that Latin is left as strongly intrenched as any subject can be. Altho a boy may take Greek and omit Latin, it is not a likely contingency; so that practically every Harvard A. B. must have had not less than four years' steady, hard work in a dead language. Another reason was the conviction in some minds that Greek, as commonly taught in the schools, has little literary incitement, and even in some colleges is rather philological than humane. Occasionally one hears of experiences like that of an advocate of classics, who in the seventh year of his study of Greek was reading Plato, and was told by his instructor that for those parts of the text which could not be read in class an excellent English translation would be useful. Such incidents lead some people to ask how many years of hard, thoro study would be necessary before a student might be expected to read a page without grammar and dictionary.

The overseers of Harvard University represent conservative tendencies, and it might have been expected that thousands of Harvard graduates who remembered their classical course with pleasure and satisfaction would put a pressure upon their representatives to veto the withdrawal of the special privileges of Greek. The overseers declined to interfere upon this point, and it may be asserted—or must be admitted—that Greek has forever lost the position of a language held by the authorities of Harvard to be essential to the training of a professional or literary man.

For somewhat local and technical reasons it was also thought expedient to merge the special subjects of Latin composition and Greek composition into the advanced Latin and advanced Greek. Henceforth all the classics, except elementary Latin, must depend for their status in the schools upon two factors only: the conviction of masters and parents that the intellectual discipline is superior in those subjects; and the relative ease of preparing a boy for college without classics. For, after all, every scheme of entrance requirements is sure to be examined by teachers with the same care as that of a builder who goes over a contract to see how small an amount of material may be made to meet the specifications. A large num-

ber of candidates will always be prepared on what is supposed to be the easiest method.

If Greek was to go out of the list of prescriptions, what studies were to be left? The point of view of the faculty was not so much that this or that thing should be studied as that certain departments of learning should be represented. They first laid down the following fundamentals: the mother tongue, an ancient language, a modern language, some mathematics, an observational science, and history. Altho this was practically the old list, except for Greek, it was felt to be too long because it left so little for choice among the optionals, and hence the faculty struck out algebra and history from the required list. The overseers, by the tie vote of their chairman, refused to accept either exclusion; and after much parliamentary fencing, the faculty was obliged to yield on both counts, and algebra and history were restored to the list of elective prescriptions.

The new requirements are stated in tabular form above. As will be seen, the only two absolute and undeviating requirements left are English and algebra. In each of the five other required subjects there is at least one alternative: between the two ancient languages a boy has the privilege of choosing either Latin or Greek; out of modern languages he may take French or German; in mathematics he may have the new geometry, including the elements of solid geometry, or the old plane geometry; in history he has a choice between ancient, and American and English; in science there is a choice among four subjects.

The principle of choice has its freest course in the list of options, which is for two reasons much more flexible than the old list: In the first place, it is increased by the addition of anatomy, physiology and hygiene, botany, physiography, meteorology, and advanced history; in the second place, alternative elementary subjects may be used as options. Thus a boy who offers elementary chemistry instead of physics for his science requirement, may present the physics as one of the options. The only limitation on the options is that at least four points must be chosen out of the advanced subjects, all of which are

built upon elementary subjects. This means simply that every candidate must offer at least two studies which have been pursued for several consecutive years, and in which he has therefore made considerable advance.

It is unfortunate that the quantity of options is small in comparison with the required subjects. The overseers have given the scheme a confinement which the faculty did not intend; but by using the alternatives among the requirements a large degree of choice is allowed and the rigidity of the system is relieved. Inasmuch as the program now includes in some form almost all the subjects which are taught in good secondary schools, boys who have had a thoro training anywhere can make nearly all their studies available so far forth for entrance to Harvard College. Hence the new scheme takes account, not only of the work of the regular Harvard fitting schools, but of good high schools and academies the country over, provided instruction in the individual subjects comes up to the standard of the Harvard examination papers under the new definitions.

It remains to state the total aggregate requirement as compared with the old system. Allusion has already been made to the nervousness of the faculty as to an increase in the difficulty of entering college; and from the beginning it has been the intention to frame a system which would condition and reject no more than the usual proportion of candidates who have had good teachers. There is an increase of effort, especially in history; and it was therefore thought reasonable to arrange the total so that the boy should have fewer subjects to offer than at present. Henceforth a candidate who may work up any one of the lists of studies heretofore commonly prepared will find that he has at least two points (equivalent to algebra or French) beyond what has been necessary. This is a practical protest against the oft reprehended "smatterings" in schools; it looks toward more thoro work in the studies undertaken. The critical point of the actual passing standard is one finally to be adjusted by the committee in charge of the entrance examinations from year to year. But it is the purpose of the faculty that that committee shall expect

a somewhat better quality of work in each of the slightly smaller total of subjects.

So far nothing has been said about admissions to the Lawrence Scientific School, because the faculty easily, and even gratefully, adopted the committee's report upon that subject, since it did not involve the vexed question of Greek, nor of preserving the same total, while altering the units. For many years the requirements to the scientific school have been fewer than those of the college, and more leniency has been shown in conditions; but it is now proposed slowly to increase the requirements till they at least equal those of the college in amount and difficulty. At present, however, they stand at nineteen points and far below the twenty-six points necessary for college. The difference is not less than a year's work.

FOR ENTRANCE TO THE LAWRENCE SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL

I. REQUIRED STUDIES (17 points)

A. *Absolutely prescribed studies* (9 points)

English.....	4 points
Elementary algebra	2 "
Geometry.....	3 "

B. *A Choice out of prescribed alternatives* (8 points)

A modern foreign language aggregating.....	4 points
(that is, elementary French and elementary German, or elementary and advanced French or elementary and advanced German)	
Elementary history (ancient, or English and American)	2 "
An observational science or sciences (elementary physics, 2; or chemistry, 2; or physiography, 1; or anatomy, physiology, and hygiene, 1; or botany, 1; or zoölogy, 1; or astronomy, 1).....	2 "

II. OPTIONAL STUDIES (2 points)

C. *Elementary alternative subjects* (so far as not made use of in Group B)

Greek.....	4 points
Latin.....	4 "
French or German	2 "
Physics.....	2 "
Geometry.....	2 "
Physiography.....	1 "
Anatomy, physiology, and hygiene.....	1 "
Botany.....	1 "
Zoölogy.....	1 "

D. Elementary technical subjects

Drawing, freehand.....	1 point
Drawing, projections.....	1 "
Shop work, wood-working.....	1 "
Shop work, blacksmithing.....	1 "
Shopwork, chipping, filing, and finishing.....	1 "
Shop work, machine-tool work.....	1 "

E. Advanced subjects (so far as not made use of in Group B)

Greek authors.....	2 points
Latin authors and composition.....	2 "
German.....	2 "
French.....	2 "
History (choice out of four subjects).....	2 "
Algebra.....	1 "
Logarithms and trigonometry.....	1 "
Physics.....	2 "
Meteorology.....	1 "
Astronomy.....	1 "

As will be seen from the above table, the fundamental idea of the plan is the same as that for the college; namely, that there shall be for all candidates a small group of absolute requirements, a large group of alternative prescriptions, and a still larger group of optionals out of which a minimum choice must be made. The units are the same, except that six technical subjects, together with botany and zoölogy, are accepted only by the scientific school. The prescriptions are the same, except that Latin is left out in the scientific list and geometry (including some solid geometry) is put in instead of plane geometry. It is worth noting that with the increased entrance requirements, followed by four years' hard study, the S. B. degree will be much more serious than heretofore. Notwithstanding this improvement, students who omit Greek are not, therefore, to be thrown upon the S. B. degree, but, as shown above, may enter Harvard College. There are some other restrictions in the scheme, due to the fact that the scientific school has the group system instead of free electives; therefore certain studies are necessary for a boy intending to take one group which may not be required for another.

If the above descriptions seem to run to figures, values, and equivalents it is simply because, wherever there is a proper sys-

tem of options, there must be numerical equivalents for weighing one choice of subjects against another. With all its complexities the scheme is really simple and comprehensible. The tables show at a glance that it consists of two absolute requirements for college (English and algebra) and of five more required subjects, in each of which there is an alternative. Beyond this two-fold requirement there is a long list of optional subjects, from which eight points must be chosen for college, of which four points may be elementary and four must be advanced; and two points must be chosen for the scientific school.

The main advantages of the new system over the old may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. The matter is adjusted. After weary and even impatient months of discussion, the question of entrance requirements at Harvard is settled for probably ten years to come, and settled, on the whole, to the satisfaction of the larger part of the faculty.

2. Greek is no longer enshrined, but depends, like most other subjects, upon the interest and advantage which boys may find in it. So the classical schools must make the subject interesting and profitable, or they will be left behind.

3. The classical department recognizes the necessity of opening up their subject within the college and has established a college course in elementary Greek.

4. In five of the seven required subjects a previously existing system of equivalents has been extended and modified.

5. The number of optional subjects is much increased.

6. By this increase of subjects and by the additional flexibility of the whole system Harvard College and the Lawrence Scientific School are both brought into much more direct, simple, and harmonious relations with the body of preparatory schools.

7. Thru the new definitions the college lays stress upon what it believes to be the best methods of teaching the various subjects.

8. The scientific school has an increased and definite entrance program, with a prospect of a gradual increase of difficulty in entrance.

In a previous article upon this subject it was suggested that the college hoped thru its decision to be helpful to education thruout the country. This remark brought down the criticism of an alumnus upon Harvard teachers who spend time in doing something else than teaching students of Harvard College. Hence it might not be seemly to consider how far the reform at Harvard is in the line of the educational tendencies and improvements of the present day. But as the witty Congregationalist clergyman said about the endowment of Chicago University, "You can't spend seven millions on Baptists only;" so it may be said that if there is any good thing in the new Harvard system, Harvard University cannot garner all of it for its own exclusive advantage.

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VI

EDUCATIONAL JOURNALISM: AN INVENTORY

It is a fundamental principle of sound business to take inventory at stated periods, and certainly there can be no time more appropriate than the approaching close of the century. As regards educational journalism, the most interesting thing about its present status is that it has one.

1. It has passed the experimental stage. The epitaph on most of the school journals of forty years ago should be that of the three-days-old infant:

"Since so soon I was done for
O what was I begun for?"

The history of educational journalism in Missouri, as published in the report of the National Association for 1893, begins with one of which "the first and only number was published in July, 1857." A periodical of one number is like a circle described by a fixed point.

But there are plenty of readers now for educational journals. The question is no longer whether teachers shall take them, but which they shall take. Three journals celebrate this year their twenty-fifth anniversary. Two others lack but three years of their half-century. There are twenty American educational journals that have promise of permanence.

2. It has passed, also, the eleemosynary stage. Our institutes and associations are no longer occupied by pleadings to support the State educational journal. The only reason for subscribing to a school journal nowadays is that it is worth having. There is no longer any excuse for publishing one that does not pay. The *Common school journal* was a constant drain upon the meager salary of Horace Mann. It is understating the case to say that Henry Barnard sank in his *American journal of education* his own fortune and all that he could beg or borrow from his friends. But the educational journal of to-day appeals to a different public. Teach-

ers are readers of professional literature, and will support any school journal worth supporting. The EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, established upon a higher plane than any of its predecessors, and paying the authors for every article written specially for it, has from the first number more than met expenses. Several school journals are valuable property, affording their editors a comfortable living and salable at a considerable price.

3. It has passed, also, the official stage. Pennsylvania still makes its *School journal* the organ of the department of public instruction, and distributes it among the schools at the expense of the State. Other States have tried the experiment, but without satisfactory results,—California being the latest and most lamentable example. From the official point of view it has been found wiser to make announcements thru other mediums. All State superintendents publish reports, sometimes including the proceedings of the various teachers' associations; and in several States they publish series of leaflets, with information and suggestions, thus including nearly everything that Horace Mann put into his *Common school journal*. The Commissioner of Education, in his reports and circulars of information, has published a considerable library of such material as Henry Barnard put into his *American journal of education*.

Necessarily the scope of the educational journal has changed. It is no longer weighted down with material appropriate to a parliamentary blue-book, but, assuming that its readers have been supplied thru other sources with this material, comments upon it, leads the way where action is needed, and keeps its readers informed of whatever is of educational interest in the news of the day.

Hence it cannot afford to have official support. Sometimes it must criticise the powers that be. When it supports them, its readers must feel that the support comes from conviction and not from obligation. The utterance of a journal is apt to be indistinct when its mouth is stretched open for public pap.

4. It is becoming widely differentiated. This is a sign of strength. Besides the general educational journal, intended to

be of value to all teachers, the wants of special classes of teachers are met by special classes of journals. The University of Chicago publishes a journal for secondary teachers, which announces itself independent of pecuniary considerations. The art teachers have a most creditable representative. There are journals for manual-training teachers, and microscopists, and school boards.

Most prosperous financially of all the educational journals are the method-papers, for primary and intermediate teachers. There has been of late improvement in some of these, and in one or two there appears the consistent direction of a sensible editor. But, as a rule, they are still made, like Moses' green spectacles, to sell. They are blind leaders of the blind. To follow their teachings would be like sailing the *Teutonic* across the Atlantic with a weather-vane for a compass. They are to teachers' minds what candy-shops are to their digestions. But method-journals have their place, and sometime will fill it worthily.

5. It is passing out of the amateur period. We all remember that story in the *Fourth reader* of the apprentice who displayed amazing information on all sorts of topics, and who, when he was asked where he learned it all, replied modestly, "In my spare moments." That has been the trouble with our educational journals—they have been edited in our spare moments; and spare moments make lean columns.

The support of educational journals has reached the point where they may begin to occupy and pay for the time of one or more editors. It is just here that educational journalism at the present time is weakest. It has learned how to pay for white paper and type-setting and printing, but it has not learned how to pay for brains. Its compensation to contributors is nominal, and no publisher has as yet ventured to pay salary enough to secure the exclusive services of an editor who is an acknowledged leader. We have, for instance, no American periodical of equal value with the *Journal of education* of London, a single number of which represents more paid editorial work than any volume of most of our journals. The time is ripe for an educational journal that will secure the best

thought and the best-sifted professional news, whatever it costs.

6. Yet it has produced some sets of volumes of permanent value. Barnard's *American journal of education* is still the best cyclopedia in English of the subject. The EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, by publishing the best thought of the present educational leaders on the most important topics, is gathering what will have historic, as well as direct value; while its doughty editorial columns are continually making history as well as recording it. The *Public school journal*, as most of its volumes of this century will still be called, bears on every page the impress of sober, vigorous, intelligent thought. The *Indiana school journal* for the last twenty-eight years is an enduring monument to its good old crusty, conservative, upright, down-right editor, who has just retired with the thoro respect and hearty good-will of his co-workers. *Intelligence* is too much given to snarling to be an ideal watch-dog, but tho it often barks needlessly, it never fails to bark when warning is necessary. The *New England journal of education* is editorially erratic, inclined to cry "crisis, crisis," when there is no crisis; but tho it has not lived up to its opportunity, its twenty-five stout bound volumes represent, on the whole, the most valuable achievement in educational journalism America has yet made.

All these are journals of character and of continuance—journals of which libraries will do well to be accumulating files, for they will be consulted in the century to come. The *Ohio educational monthly*, too, tho its value has varied greatly with its different editors, and the *Pennsylvania school journal*, survival of the fittest of the official journals, deserve place as the two oldest of existing educational journals.

So, on the whole, the sum-totals are encouraging. There are some valuable assets, the general condition of the business is healthy, the experiments in expenditure upon broader lines have been successful, and the century just closing turns over to the new century a sound basis upon which to build a higher type of educational journalism.

C. W. BARDEEN

VII

SOME CRITICISMS OF THE KINDERGARTEN ¹

There are two well-known and easily distinguishable forms of educational criticism. There is, first of all, that of the censorious critic, who seeks for weaknesses in points of detail, who lacks equally a sense of proportion and a sense of humor, and who overlooks the fact that in the working out of great fundamental principles, not even the greatest of them flows to its full application without some slowing of the current or some eddy in the stream. Such is the criticism which tends to ridicule, to break down, to destroy, and it is wholly unworthy of attention in any form.

There is, on the other hand, a criticism which is sympathetic, which is appreciative, and which, with some insight into the aim and methods of an educational movement, points out ways and methods of strengthening and improving that movement with the declared purpose of building up a more enduring educational superstructure.

Having, as I have, so profound an admiration for the spirit, methods, and aim of the kindergarten, and being so absolutely convinced, not only of its excellence as an educational factor in its own place, but of its value as an inspiration to all education, it would be quite impossible for me to meet this Department in any spirit but that of a kindly and constructive criticism.

You are, of course, familiar with the statement, often made, that the philosophies of Froebel and of Hegel, containing the deepest insights of the German philosophy of this century, are more popular in the United States than at home. The inference is drawn that Germany has outgrown their inspiration and motive power; and the inference is equally suggested to us that we are trading here upon

¹ Condensed from a stenographic report of an address before the Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association, at Los Angeles, Cal., July 12, 1899

second-hand material. I do not believe that to be true. It is certainly true that the kindergarten is to-day upon a higher plane, is more efficient, more widespread, and more honored in America than in any other culture nation. I cannot interpret that fact to our discredit. It is equally true that the great seed-thought of Hegel,—the evolution of the human spirit, reflecting the single principle, common alike to nature and to mind, which is rightly called divine,—it is true that that seed-thought and that insight into life are more highly esteemed, more studied, and more fully applied to-day by American scholars than by those of any other nation. I cannot interpret that fact to our discredit. If Germany has seen fit to turn her face, in part at least, toward some gods which others can but consider false, and away from the wisest of her teachers, this will but fasten our hold the stronger on those truths of which we seem so sure.

One criticism which is made in a constructive spirit upon the work of the kindergarten is that it often exalts the letter above the spirit; that it tends to make static, definite, and permanent the forms of procedure, kinds of material, and methods of intellectual, moral, and social development, which are not ends in themselves, but rather rungs of a ladder by which the child-spirit climbs to a higher view-point from which outlook on life becomes broader and richer. There is basis for that criticism. One danger in which the kindergarten has stood lies in what may be called the worship of literal form as distinguished from exaltation of the spirit, which clothes itself in ever-varying forms. How has that come about when the real spirit of Froebel, like the real spirit of Hegel, is so clearly and surely a principle of development? There is only one answer to that question. It is because in some parts of this country the kindergarten movement, appealing to the philanthropic instinct of men and women not highly trained to think, has furnished them with educational material which they have seemed to understand, and with which they have too often been satisfied. In other words, the sure method of escape from that particular lowering of the tone of kindergarten thought and practice lies

in the one thing which the kindergartner most needs to-day—wider scholarship. It is too often supposed that because the kindergarten teacher is dealing with the very young child, an emptiness of mind coupled with amiability of disposition will suffice to direct the child's spiritual development. A stupid person may perhaps direct education at that stage where some adequate consciousness of the subject-matter is had by the pupil himself; but no wisdom is too great to deal with the young child, who can approach his subject-matter thru symbols only.

What is needed most to-day in this work is a higher standard of excellence in the training of kindergartners. I mean a broader general preparation, a more widespread conviction as to the importance of thoro preparation. The resources of literature, science, art, and music must be drawn upon to the largest possible extent. It is all well enough to learn, partly by instruction and partly by a period of apprenticeship, something of the mode of kindergarten procedure. But unless that procedure be inspired and illuminated by a grasp upon general culture and modern scientific information, nothing but a formal and barren education will result.

Too many low-standard kindergarten training classes are at the bottom of some of our faults. They have low standards of admission, low ideals of training, and are too often satisfied with training in technique and form, trusting that time will repair the damage or experience remove it. That kindergarten teacher who is not constantly and continually a student, and a student along those great lines of human effort which I have named, will sooner or later dry up her inspiration at its source. First of all she must have scholarship, not only in entering upon the work, but afterward as well; a constant and broader study, which is truly philosophic, because comparative, and because it puts itself under the guidance of the best teachers; one which is also practical in the highest sense because it brings its resources to a focus every morning in the kindergarten room.

Another criticism which is sometimes made, and with which

my observation leads me to find myself in sympathy, is that the kindergarten is often attached in an external manner to an organic scheme or school system, and is not conceived as an integral part of one process of child development. It was easy for such a condition to come about, because the kindergarten, in its inception, represented ideas which were wholly strange to the schoolmaster's mind. The kindergartners were, therefore, thrown back upon themselves, and incrustated themselves with a shell for protection. It is now necessary for us to make sure that the shell does not stiffen and harden, making growth impossible.

It is easy to mark off in large periods all development of the human mind. It is easy enough to mark off in large periods all growth of the human body. But who ever saw the body or the mind grow? The subtle process goes on before our eyes, wholly unseen, unobserved. It does not obey any arithmetical law; it is not subject to precise measurement or to scientific observation. We gather up those things which we call marks of progress and dwell upon them, but we are unable to put our hand on the point where one stage passes into the other. Therefore the educational scheme which tries to base itself upon hard and fast periods is false to the vital principle of growth.

It is impossible to say how many years are necessary, in every case, for kindergarten instruction. I am confident that in the case of some children the symbolic period may be passed in one-half the time that other children may take; and we, believing in the principle of individuality and preaching it to others, must not fail to apply it to ourselves. This means that the child must be released for the elementary school as soon as he is ready for it—but no sooner—so far as we are able to observe and know.

I am inclined to resist the contention that the kindergarten is a course of study. I have no objection to "courses of study," in the sense in which the term is often used; but I object very much to the theory that the child who is able to take the third step must not be allowed to take it because he has not taken the second. I do not believe in holding a child back for

the sake of the "thoreness" or "completeness" of the course of study. I believe the human mind in education should always be put at that task for which it is competent; and it is "pedagogical," not educational, to insist that every step be covered, no matter at what expenditure of time, when the power to advance more rapidly is present. Therefore, it is necessary for the kindergarten to beware of holding children back. We do not want the elementary school to hold back those who are ready for the high school; we do not want the high school to hold back those who are ready for college; or the college, those who are ready for the university. We cannot put the child of three to seven years of age in a strait-jacket and say that there he must stay for a fixed time, regardless of his natural ability or accomplishments.

Because the line of demarkation is so difficult to establish, it has become the duty of the kindergartner to acquaint herself in a general way (it is impracticable to do it in detail) with the principles, methods, and ideals of the elementary school. There must be the most absolute sympathy between the kindergarten and the grades above it; and we are in these days rightly calling upon teachers of the lower grades of the elementary school to master the spirit of the followers of Froebel. Sympathy comes from mutual understanding and knowledge. In this way the kindergarten will become attached to the school, and no longer be a separate and distinct part of the educational scheme; it will take its natural place as one of the various stages in the growth of one living and organic human mind.

I know that there is a great demand that those who go into the kindergarten work shall know the principles of elementary school teaching, and that elementary teachers shall go into the schools with a knowledge of the work and purposes of the kindergarten. This demand is made by the best educational sentiment and opinion. It remains for kindergartners to do their share in satisfying that demand by studying the principles of elementary school work and by occasionally supplying elementary teachers from their own ranks.

It is sometimes said that the kindergarten is at war with the

home; that these children of tender years should be under their mother's care; that it is unnatural for children of that age to be brought together in groups for instruction, however needful it may be. I hold the contrary opinion. I think that of all forms of educational work, none has been so successful, as yet, as the kindergarten in reaching and uplifting the home; and the kindergarten which does not have a mothers' class attached to it is not a kindergarten in the best sense of the word.

Again, we sometimes hear it said that the kindergarten is an admirable thing for the children of the poor; that their children are neglected, dirty, unkempt, uncared for; that the children of the well-to-do need not be found in the kindergarten. In the first place, I resent such a distinction as wholly undemocratic and uneducational. In the second place, looking forward as I do to the next great educational problem of this country, which will be, not the education of the poor, but the education of the rich, I am forced to wonder how the children of the rich can afford to be without the advantages of the kindergarten. It is a serious thing when, in our social and economic efforts, a line of class distinction is drawn. We have only to look at England to see how, with her high ideals, great opportunities, and large expenditures for education, the people find themselves hampered at every turn in striving to effect reforms, by social and economic distinctions. We must not allow these to enter into our educational work.

One more point is important because in that particular the kindergarten is widely misunderstood. You hear the criticism from the elementary school-teacher, made with the best of intentions, but from what I hold to be a wrong point of view, that the kindergarten is disorderly, that it has not the discipline and the definiteness of routine of the elementary school. The kindergarten is, therefore, held to be a disintegrating influence in the development of the child, and to increase the task of discipline later on. My reply to this criticism is that it arises from what seems to me to be a wholly false conception of discipline or order. Suppose an observer passing over this busy city in a balloon, were able to look down upon its crowded

streets, on which men and women are passing and repassing in every direction, each going to his appointed task without interfering with his fellow; would such a scene be one of disorder, because the human beings within the observer's field of vision were not massed in phalanx and controlled in a mass by a military drill-master? I think not. The scene would be one of a very high type of order indeed, one much higher, in fact, than the order of a marching regiment. Order is not an external form, but an inner habit—the habit of going in a purposeful way, with due regard to the purposes and rights of others, about some definite thing, even tho the lines cross and recross. To substitute for this high type of order a single, definite form is to substitute the order which is death for the order which is life; and my response to such a criticism is that I should prefer to see more of the kindergarten order in the lower grades of the elementary school and less of the elementary school order in the kindergarten.

Let me say in conclusion that it is a striking fact, and one of the most hopeful signs to be found to-day in all education, that the two extremes of the educational process, the kindergarten and the university, are the two greatest conservators of individualism; and it is only as the individual is being rescued from the routine of the intervening school periods that these periods are rising to perfection and efficiency. The great hope of our school system lies in the fact that the spirit of individualism is working down from the university and up from the kindergarten, and that some day the two lines of development will meet and will hold the whole educational process within their spheres of influence.

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VIII

DISCUSSIONS

THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF PRACTICE TEACHING IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

That the practice teaching in a normal school is capable of ranking as the most valuable course for the student is to me an important truth. That it usually so ranks is probably quite a different statement. Dr. Payne, it seems to me, is altogether right in denouncing practice teaching as he describes it in his recent interesting article in the *EDUCATIONAL REVIEW*.¹ The teaching and the critic-work that he therein so graphically describes and so cordially denounces is probably not altogether a figment of the imagination. Let us trust, however, that it is extremely rare. Dr. Payne has given us a vivid picture of what practice teaching and criticism should not be, or, as the Germans would say, *ein abschreckendes Beispiel*. The objects of his criticism are obviously based on a total misconception of the principles of teaching, the province of criticism, and the character of the critic.

It is my purpose to describe practice teaching, as I conceive it, as well as the character of the critic and the province of criticism, in support of the thesis under discussion.

Quoting from our eminent critic: "It is believed that the best way to teach a liberal art is to teach the essential doctrines and principles that underlie that art. Law, medicine, and theology are taught on this plan." In such schools the science is learned, not the art, he says. Nominally this may be true, actually it is not. In the hospital the student visits the patients, accompanied by his instructor, makes his own diagnosis, and issues his own prescriptions; when gradually his instructor feels that he may be trusted further he is allowed more freedom. The instructor

¹ 16: 469-479

keeps a close supervision but does not interfere so long as the student makes no mistake. The student is not embarrassed nor distressed by this relationship, but is strengthened by the consciousness of an ever-present help if needed. The truth of the quotation is a matter of indifference, however, as the cases cited and the training of the normal-school student are not parallel.

The minimum entrance requirement to our normal school is the minimum requirement to teach in the public schools of the State. The candidate for training in the normal school is then, from the beginning, a licensed teacher and, were he given charge of a class upon his entrance, nothing more could happen to him or to the children than is allowed to happen every day in the public schools. The candidate spends almost two years from this time in trying to master the fundamental principles of his art and in discovering their application in well-directed observation of teaching in the training department. When he does begin to work in the light of these principles, which are as much his as unapplied principles can be, the value of the work to himself and the children cannot be successfully questioned, provided, of course, that the conditions are what they may be, and what they are in many schools.

In the first place, if the student has shown no grasp of the principles involved in a recitation, if he has shown no power of analyzing a recitation and no ability to think out a recitation in a given subject with a given class,—that is, if he is unable to plan one,—of course he will never be placed in charge of a class. It would be positively injurious to everybody concerned if he were. Having shown himself proficient in these things the student may be allowed the responsibility of a class. The class is to be his, really his; as much his as would be a class of any grade in a village or city school where he would be under a supervising principal. This class is to be his an hour each day for perhaps half a year. He calls for it at the appointed hour, conducts it to the recitation room and back. He is responsible to the room teacher or the principal for the order and progress of the class while it is under his care, just as the teacher of a grade in a city is responsible to the superintendent,

or to the principal of the building. In the former case he is held to a much stricter account than he would be in the latter.

Every such teacher, and every teacher that works at all efficiently, must have in mind more or less clearly what he expects to accomplish and also how he expects to accomplish it. Germany's greatest field marshal says that it is indeed much to see the end toward which one strives, but it is a great deal more to find the way by which one is to reach it. In order that the critic-teacher may know how the student is striving to realize his ideal, and in order for him to be most helpful without being too frequent a visitor in his class, the student is required to give the critic a detailed written plan of what he expects to accomplish in each recitation, and the how thereof. If there is need of it the plan is subjected to a thoro discussion before it is carried into practice.

The student is not to be mastered by his plan; he is to be master of it. It is believed that the general that has made the most thoro and detailed plan of the coming battle, based on the knowledge of the strength and whereabouts of his own forces and those of the enemy, because of that plan will be most liable to inspirations of the moment and most ready to take advantage of the least false step of his adversary. He never dreams that he must follow a pre-arranged plan if events disclose a better. Events, however, never disclose a plan to a planless man. The same is eminently true of the teacher. The full force of the old saying holds here, "Unto him that has (a plan) more shall be added." The teacher who has his lesson mastered in this way is the only one who can be really and fruitfully free, and only under such conditions can his experience be most valuable.

These plans are conscious efforts to make the general individual, to make fundamental educational principles concrete. The student, not without illustrious examples, who has never taught an hour in the grades, has for the last year and a half been talking glibly and learnedly, perhaps even enthusiastically, about these far-reaching fundamentals. Let him keep his enthusiasm, and he will if it is not a mushroom growth, for he is to see just what these laws of teaching should mean to him

in the classroom. In this struggle, which is not without its discouragements and certainly not without great delights, his critic-teacher is his sympathetic friend and helper.

The freedom that is granted the student should be everything that is not license. It should be the freedom of intelligence; he should be limited in what he may do only by the great laws of teaching to which he has declared his allegiance. In fact, only in accordance with these laws can he be free. Under the kindly and intelligent guidance of his critic-teacher he applies these tests and moves consciously toward his ideal. In this experience he comes face to face with the difficulties while there is someone near to whom he may appeal, and who, in these concrete cases, may point the way to solutions which would otherwise be discovered at great waste of time and energy to himself and the children. Here, as in no other way, he realizes the difference between talking about aims, good, bad, and indifferent questions, sequence of questions, self-activity, child doing the work, etc., and actually doing creditable work from all these points of view, economically. Here he gradually becomes his own critic.

Professor Rein says concerning this point: "The work of the schoolroom is and will remain the test for how much the student must yet add to his inner treasures, first of knowledge, but above all of clearness, depth, and warmth of moral sentiment. Let us conceive the work of our little practice school in this spirit. We are fortunate that we have it, small and modest as it is, for here we can separate the chaff from the wheat, Here is the field for the growth of character in the teacher who is willing to lessen the distance between himself and his ideal by unceasing effort, by deeds rather than words."

We have too many lamentable examples of men well-grounded in theory and left to themselves to learn the art without supervision and training. The point is well put by the *Autocrat of the breakfast table*: "Self-made men? Well, yes. Everybody likes and respects self-made men. It is a great deal better to be made in that way than not to be made at all. Are any of you younger people old enough to remember the Irishman's house on the marsh at Cambridgeport, which house he

built from drain to chimney-top with his own hands? It took him a good many years to build it, and one could see that it was a little out of plumb, and a little wavy in outline, and a little queer and uncertain in general aspect. A regular hand could certainly have built a better house, but it was a very good house for a 'self-made' carpenter's house, and people praised it and said how remarkably well the Irishman had succeeded. They never thought of praising the fine blocks of houses a little farther on.

"Your self-made man, whittled into shape with his own jack-knife, deserves more credit, if that is all, than the regular engine-turned article, shaped by the most approved pattern, and French-polished by society and travel. But as to saying that one is in every way equal to the other, that is another matter."

A great deal has been said about criticism, not of a reassuring nature. Without criticism there is no assurance that teaching in the training department, or elsewhere, may not be positively harmful. It is necessarily expensive.

There are no eyes for the student's faults but his own. His eyes have not been trained upon himself nor is there a qualified friend at hand for consultation. The student must be made a qualified and exacting critic of himself, else his growth will cease at commencement. Eternal self-examination is the price of continued progress toward freedom in the teacher.

The real critic is not the chronic grumbler and fault-finder with never a word of commendation; he is not one whose function is to find faults and who must find them even if they are not apparent to the naked eye, because he is paid for it. This sometime prevalent idea is based upon a false conception of the functions of criticism. Criticism is not necessarily adverse, nor should it ever be simply an opinion or an attack upon devices or so-called "methods" in themselves, but only as they conform, or do not conform, to a principle. Criticism is interpretation. It calls for a perfect comprehension of the purpose of the author, the artist, the physician, or the teacher, as the case may be, the means he has used to attain that purpose and the result. This purpose, the means, and the result are to be apprehended from the standpoint of their author; that is, what

is he seeking to accomplish? Is there anything more worthy of accomplishment in this particular case? If there is, show why. What other means would lend themselves better to this end? Wherein were the means used not economical, not most economical? Are the results commensurate with the time and the effort? Wherein has skill been manifested? Do you object to any of the devices employed, or approve any? Give the principles involved; show how they are involved. Anything in a recitation that is not capable of being based upon a pedagogical law, somewhat as a proposition in geometry may be reduced to its axioms, is not capable of proper defense. No criticism that is not capable of being so based can be either strong or helpful. In pointing out a fault in the solution of a problem in geometry nothing but an unfortunate manner in the instructor could make it anything but helpful. No man would think of basing his criticism there on personal opinion.

In this way the criticism avoids trivialities and is given an inevitable and impersonal character seeming to come from the very nature of things, and so is unlikely to give offense. The real freedom of the student is not touched. The critic, pointing out a new and right way, appears as the friend in need. The child making the familiar sloyd model, the oblong window stick, sees no necessity for making the edges straight and the angles right angles except that the instructor requires it, whereas, in the construction of a simple pencil box, without murmuring, he will make six window-sticks (modified) with limitless pains as to the edges and the angles, for it is the box itself that makes the demands. There is no resentment here against the teacher.

Summing up: In the practice school, then, the student has actual teaching. He makes conscious and directed efforts to realize the laws, to which he is subject, in actual recitations. He has the freedom of infinite variety under these laws. He goes out into the world a self-critic, with the enthusiasm of intelligent insight, the possibility of infinite growth, and not blinded by a host of superficial devices. He will not cease to grow. His practice teaching has been his most important course.

JOHN W. HALL

HOW TO MAKE THE STUDY OF LATIN AND GREEK
MORE INTERESTING TO COLLEGE STUDENTS

The question must often present itself to the teacher of Greek or Latin who finds his classes unresponsive, whether it is not possible to make the study of the ancient languages more interesting and profitable to college students. In an age when everything tends toward the practical, when a majority of students elect political science because it has to do with the affairs of active life, and when, just now, Spanish courses are overcrowded*because there is a vague possibility of business relations, in which a knowledge of the language will be useful,—in America especially, where the past is regarded almost with contempt and we have eyes only for the present and the future,—under these circumstances can we really expect the average college student to feel an enthusiasm for ancient languages? We are compelling thousands of undergraduates to study Greek and Latin during a part of their college course, and most of them look forward eagerly to the time when they may give their attention to something more congenial. Where this compulsion does not exist, a fair number of students elect a classical course for a year or two, but their choice is due in many cases to a sort of momentum, acquired in the classical training of the preparatory school. Is this state of things necessary? If so, then the fault lies in the subject itself, and the student's time would be better spent on something else. If it is not necessary, then the fault is in the teaching.

Personally, I believe that Greek and Latin may be made interesting and useful to a large number of students. That in many cases this result is not attained is the fault of the teacher and of the teacher's teachers; for nine out of ten continue, with more or less faithfulness, the methods by which they themselves were instructed. Even if they realize the weakness of the method, they have not the independence or the energy to correct it. The mistake which many of us are making, it seems to me, is that we are teaching the minority instead of the majority; we are giving our attention, unconsciously perhaps, to those few students who expect to be teachers. They will need

an accurate knowledge of grammar, and so we devote a large part of the time to that subject, inculcating the principles by constant repetition of rules, by elaborate analysis, by practice in writing Greek and Latin, and otherwise. This effort, I will venture to say, especially the attempt to teach Greek and Latin composition, is practically wasted upon four-fifths of the students, and does more than anything else to make the classics repulsive. Grammar must be taught in the schools, of course, and taught well; moreover, if the teaching force is sufficient, colleges must offer grammatical courses for prospective teachers. But in the ordinary reading courses, particularly if they be prescribed, the less said about grammar the better.

It is possible that the teacher is unable to do his work in any other way; he may be a specialist, who has devoted his life exclusively to Greek and Latin, and knows no other literature. In that case, he may be useful to the minority, but will only alienate the interest of the mass of students, who are compelled to take his courses, or are foolish enough to elect them. Most men, however, can do better than that. After making the author's meaning clear, they can point out the strength or weakness of the passage as a piece of literature; they can show how an effect has been secured by the choice of a word or phrase, or by its position in the sentence. Attention may be called to the way in which some other writer has expressed a similar idea. Considered from another point of view, almost every page of ancient literature contains allusions which give the teacher an opportunity to speak of the places and people that produced this literature. The ignorance of students who have been reading Greek and Latin for five or six years, in regard to the Greeks and Romans themselves,—their history and private life,—is remarkable and painful. There are, in fact, countless ways in which the real scholar of literary taste and thoro knowledge of his subject can interest students and give them something worth having.

One other point I should like to suggest, and that is that we do not read enough. Does it give the business man better literary ideas, the fact that in his freshman year in college he read a book of Livy, a play of Terence, Plato's *Apology*, and

perhaps one or two other things? Is the return really worth the time and trouble? It is good general training, to be sure, but that, I think, is not the primary object in a college course. If the student has not been properly instructed in his preparatory school, let him first be taught how to read naturally in the order of the words, as he would read a modern language. Facility will quickly come, if he has enough vocabulary and knowledge of grammar to justify his being in college. Then let him read in large quantities. In the freshman year much more should be read than is now the custom, and in the succeeding years the amount could be vastly increased.

The method which is here suggested will seem to the specialist a superficial one; he would hesitate to leave a passage without thoro grammatical and etymological comment. But an undergraduate course cannot be conducted successfully on the same principle as a classical seminary. What is needed is a different point of view on the part of the teacher—the substitution of the literary and the historical for the linguistic.

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IX

REVIEWS

A students' history of the United States—By EDWARD CHANNING, Professor of History in Harvard University. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1898. p. xl+603. \$1.50

Professor Channing's text-book has opened new possibilities in the teaching of American history in the high schools. For the old ideal of history as pleasant literature, appealing chiefly to the imagination and the memory, there is being substituted the ideal of history as a discipline of the mind, valuable particularly as a training of the judgment in the criticism of material like that which is placed before the citizen in current political and industrial questions. It is in the frank recognition of this use of history, and of the peculiar value of the serious study of American history in the upper year of the high school, that Dr. Channing has found his opportunity. His scholarship is, of course, adequate to the task, and in the adaptation of the work to the purposes of the secondary school he has found an efficient assistant in Miss Anna Boynton Thompson of the Thayer Academy, Braintree, Mass. Her "Suggestions to teachers" are among the most valuable parts of the apparatus of the book, which includes also topics, references, and ample maps and portraits. The maps have the merits of partly elucidating the physiographic basis of our history, so much neglected, and of exhibiting changes in the internal as well as in the external historical geography of the United States. The delineation of the distribution of Presidential votes, and of the density of the United States at various census periods, would have been more effective had the author chosen smaller units than those afforded by State lines. As it is, these maps conceal as much history as they reveal. But they are a step in the right direction. The most important feature of the book, however, is its adaptation to the needs of the upper years of high-school instruction.

American history in the high schools has suffered from its place in the curriculum. It has frequently, if not usually, been assigned to the first or second years of the course, thus continuing the elementary work of the grammar grades, often with the same or similar text-books, and taught with the same ideals. Thus it degenerates into a mere review, wearisome and devoid of vitality and disciplinary power. Such a work as the present book inaugurates a welcome change.

The perspective of the work is not as satisfactory as some of the other features. Professor Channing says very well: "The new communities formed on the national domain have been termed Territories and States. This nomenclature, with the unusual liberality of the policy outlined above, has disguised the fact that during the present century the United States has been the greatest and most successful colonizing power in the world." It cannot be said that the author has acted upon this appreciation of the importance of Western development in our history as well as he has stated the phenomenon. In illustration, it may be noted that the index contains no reference to "lands," "public domain," "internal improvements," "roads," or "Indians." Of course, this defect of the index does not mean absolute exclusion of these topics from the scope of the book, but the index maker is not without excuse for his failure to find them. Nor does the South receive sufficiently complete treatment regarding its society, its statesmen, and its western expansion in the period prior to the Civil War.

On the other hand, Professor Channing treats the Southern doctrine of State sovereignty with at least sympathetic consideration in respect to its historical justification. He admits that as an historical fact—entirely apart from legal and theoretical considerations—it is undoubtedly true that it was the view of the voters whose consent gave the Constitution its validity that a State which had acceded to the Constitution could withdraw from the Union by simply holding another convention and repealing the ratifying ordinance." This statement is so absolute as to be misleading, if not entirely incorrect. It assumes a unanimity of sentiment that did not exist, and it lacks the

interpretation which a statement of the contemporaneous philosophy respecting the right of revolution would afford. But the concession at least makes it easier for the student to follow the evolution of a national sentiment and a national organization, which conventional Northern views of the origin of national sovereignty in the days of the revolution make unintelligible. At the same time it affords a basis for a fairer view of the Southern doctrine as a survival rather than as a wicked invention.

The difficulties imposed by the task of compression work some odd results in the book. Professor Channing is one of the authorities on the subject of the New England town, but the word *town* does not appear in the index, and the student is deprived of a conception of what is meant by town meeting. One misses also such an excellent and succinct statement of colonial society and government in general in the middle of the eighteenth century as appears in the author's other little book, *The United States of America, 1765-1865*.

In spite of the author's well-known scholarship, numerous inaccuracies have crept into the book, and some very doubtful judgments. One must doubt, for instance, whether De Soto really wandered along the eastern slopes of the Alleghanies nearly as far north as the southern boundary of Virginia and thence across the mountains. If so, the Alleghany passes were penetrated by civilized men two centuries before the days of the trans-Alleghany frontiersmen. Joliet and Marquette are credited merely with having reached "the upper waters of the Mississippi," and Radisson and Groseilliers are not mentioned. The ordinance of 1784 is dated 1785, by the author, and he attributes to the ordinance, as finally passed, the names of States proposed by Jefferson; but Metropotamia, Pelisipia, and so on, proved unsatisfactory even to the old Congress. The Whisky insurrection is wrongly dated. To say that Hamilton's articles in favor of the ratification of the Constitution, "with a few others from the pens of John Jay and James Madison," made up the *Federalist* is to do injustice to Madison. The name of William Clark, the transcontinental explorer, should not be spelled Clarke. Dred Scott was taken west of the

Mississippi rather than "west of the Missouri." Senator John J. Crittenden, of Kentucky, appears as John W. Some of the maps need correction, and various other slips have been noted. But these are the inevitable lapses in a book of this scope at its first appearance, and some of them may have already received correction in a later edition than that in the hands of the reviewer.

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NOTES ON NEW BOOKS

Mention of books in this place does not preclude extended critical notice hereafter

A very useful book of a novel type is Waddell's *Arithmetic of chemistry* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1899. 138 p. 90 cents).—Mr. Elbridge S. Brooks has put together a capital lot of tales in his *Stories of the Old Bay State*. They begin with the early voyages and the first settlement and come down to the building of the Hoosac Tunnel and the invention of the telephone (New York: American Book Co., 1899. 284 p. 60 cents).—Professors Rolfe and Dennison of Michigan University have prepared a thoroly good *Junior Latin book* as a substitute for the overread and overrated Cæsar's *Gallic war*. It contains a selection of fables, a sketch of Roman history, selections from *Viri Romæ* and *Nepos*, and two books of the *Gallic war* (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1898. 149 p. \$1.25).—A text-book that is essentially new in many respects and that is scientifically planned and executed is Peabody's *Laboratory exercises in anatomy and physiology* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1898. 80 p. 60 cents).—Trowbridge's *Physical science at home* is charmingly written and will be found capital reading for pupils in the upper elementary and high-school grades (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1898. 228 p. 60 cents).—Of the five volumes prescribed for the members of the Chautauqua Reading Circle for this year, three—Beers' *From Chaucer to Ten-*

nyson, Judson's *Europe in the nineteenth century*, and Winchell's *Walks and talks in the geological field*—are well known. The two new volumes—Hale's *Men and manners of the eighteenth century* and Joy's *Twenty centuries of English history*—are simple, clear, and commendable (Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent, 1898. 326 p., 318 p. \$1.50 each).—*French review exercises for advanced pupils*, by Dr. P. B. Marcou of Harvard University, is a valuable aid in the study of that language. Instead of the usual disjointed sentences, they are made to form a connected narrative (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1898. 34 p. 20 cents).—Valuable and convenient little books for students are Macaulay's essays on Milton and Addison, edited and annotated by Charles Wallace French of Chicago (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1898. 201 p. 25 cents).—A new edition of Schiller's *Jungfrau von Orleans* has appeared, arranged for students, with introduction and notes by Dr. Willard Humphreys of Princeton (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1898. 259 p. 60 cents).—A similar edition of Goethe's *Iphigenie auf Tauris* has been prepared by Dr. Charles A. Eggert, formerly of the University of Iowa (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1898. 180 p. 60 cents).—In his *Manual of psychology* Mr. Stout, editor of *Mind*, has made a thoroly scientific, and at the same time a simple and practical handbook for beginners in mental science (New York: Hinds & Noble, 1899. 643 p. \$1.50).—A scholarly and thoro piece of work is the doctor's dissertation submitted to the faculty of the Catholic University of America, by James J. Fox, entitled *Religion and morality* (New York: W. H. Young & Co., 1899. 322 p. \$2.00).—The intensely interesting book by G. Maupin, on *Opinions et curiosités tou chant la mathématique* deserves fuller mention than we are able to give it. It abounds in odd suggestions relative to the thought of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries (Paris: Carré et Naud, 1898. 200 p. 5 fr.).—Professor Hart's *Source-book of American history* is a capital bit of workmanship and should be widely used. It includes documents bearing on the Spanish war of 1898 and the Philippine question (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1899. 408 p. 60 cents).—*Practical public speaking*, by

Clark & Blanchard, contains a selection of excellent oratorical models for young men (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1899. 300 p. \$1.00).—Mr. James Ward's two volumes on *Naturalism and agnosticism*, being the Gifford lectures at Aberdeen in the years 1896-98, are a massive contribution to the literature of modern idealism, based upon a searching criticism of the vast body of far-reaching assumption which underlie and determine much of modern science (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1899. 2 vols., 302, 294 p. \$4.)—Dr. Coulter's *Plant relations*, a first text-book of botany, is a wholly admirable work. Both in plan and in structure it is a modern and scientific book. It is heartily recommended (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1899. 264 p. \$1.).—Roark's *Method in education* contains some good things, but falls short, we think, of being a first-class book (New York: American Book Co., 1899. 344 p. \$1.).—M. Lacombe, in his *Esquisse d'un enseignement basé sur la psychologie de l'enfant*, outlines a scheme of educational reform in an interesting and enthusiastic way which deserves attention (Paris: A. Colin et Cie., 1899. 212 p. 3 fr.).—M. Gratry has brought together a splendid selection of passages bearing on philosophical and scientific topics in *Pages choisies des grands écrivains* (Paris: A. Colin et Cie., 1899. 310 p. 3 fr., 50 c.).

X

EDITORIAL

The local committee system in Brooklyn

No one who has watched the development of city school administration in the United States needs to be told how the local committee system of managing schools has always worked, will always work, and must always work. It is the chosen vehicle of politics and favoritism, and is as vigorously defended by its beneficiaries as it is assailed by those who have in view an effective and professionally controlled body of teachers. The borough of Brooklyn, in the city of New York, clings to its local committee system with desperate grip, and the newspaper press of that community are in the habit of regarding any criticism of this peculiarly bad institution as a malicious attack upon the autonomy of Brooklyn and the precious liberties of its worthy citizens—and politicians.

Last winter the legislature of New York passed the so-called Ahearn teachers' salaries bill, which applied to the whole city of New York. It provided for a minimum wage for teachers, such minimum to increase with meritorious service, the superintendents to be the judges of whether service was meritorious or not. Obviously, these salutary provisions of law made admirable and serious inroads into the patronage of the local committees of the school board for the borough of Brooklyn. The *New York Commercial advertiser*, a journal of high repute with a very special interest in educational affairs, thus describes what happened when the full force of the Ahearn law was perceived by the local committee partisans:

Brooklyn schools are run under the trustee system. They do not call it that, however. It is known as the local committee plan. Under this arrangement three members of the school board, in addition to serving on the large committees, are appointed to control a special school building. In their capacity as local committeemen they must make nominations, inaugurate promotions and, in short, take the initiative in all matters affecting their school, which is almost as much under their control as if they, and not

the city, paid the salaries. The superintendents could do what they liked about merit of teachers. But the local committee was in control. They also could appoint substitutes from anywhere when none were in the eligible list. In this way many persons who hold no licenses made pin money, it is said.

The powers of petty dictatorship so possessed were very pleasant. It was nice to be able to promote one's friends if one thought them meritorious. The only check was the teachers' committee of the board, which had to confirm the local committee's action, and the board which passed on the report of the teachers' committee. Unless there was a fight in the local committee, however, matters went smoothly enough.

The Ahearn bill, however, said nothing about local committees. It prescribed that the superintendents were to be the arbiters on questions of promotion, and must decide the merit of those eligible. It was possible under this new scheme for the superintendents to find that those whom the local committee found highly meritorious were not meritorious at all. The Ahearn bill evidently was not good for a trustee system.

Something had to be done. The school board promptly passed a salary schedule of its own with figures higher than the Ahearn bill. Promotion under its provisions was made to depend entirely on the initiative of the local committees, confirmed by the teachers' committees and the school board. The scholastic experts, the borough superintendents, have nothing to do with promotions at all under this schedule. The result of this provision is that a teacher declared by the borough superintendents not to deserve promotion under the Ahearn bill can be promoted to a higher figure by the local committee on its own schedule. On the other hand, a teacher declared to be meritorious by the superintendents under the Ahearn bill may be declared unworthy of promotion under the higher local schedule by the school committee.

It can be seen, therefore, that the Brooklyn board of superintendents is powerless to control the salaries of teachers either for merit or its lack. One value alone is left to their ratings. They can insist that a teacher who is unpopular with her local committee be promoted to the minimum figures under the Ahearn law. Beyond this their report is not worth anything in terms of salary to the teachers, who can laugh at the merit stipulations of the Ahearn law if only they have merit in the eyes of the local committee-men. Let the superintendents declare that a teacher is wholly lacking in merit; she probably will be promoted to a higher figure than the Ahearn minimum in spite of their wishes. In brief, the Ahearn bill in Brooklyn does not establish a merit system, does not put a method of disciplinary control in the hands of the borough superintendents, does not give their rating of a teacher's work any salary value. It merely assures a living minimum to a faithful teacher who does not get along well with her local committee.

This story makes an interesting addition to the literature of the local committee system, and sheds a flood of light on the motives which demand its continuance.

"Scientific temperance" instruction

After standing almost alone for years in opposing the so-called scientific temperance legislation, and in pointing out the essentially unscientific and intemperate character of the proposed instruction, the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW takes no little satisfaction in noting that the tide, which for a time ran strongly in the direction of fanaticism, has begun to turn. The struggle in Massachusetts last winter and the victory there of the really scientific and temperate elements of the community, was a great event. It deservedly attracted widespread attention, and now the faint-hearted who hesitated to oppose a foolish and indefensible scheme because it was urged by persons whose "motives are good," are plucking up courage.

It is especially significant that journals like the *Outlook* and the *Nation* should take the attitude they did in discussing the reports of Professor Atwater of Wesleyan University. In commenting on the extravagant and baseless claims of the authors and advocates of the "temperance physiology" textbooks, the *Nation* used this language:

The question will never be satisfactorily settled until the truth in regard to the physiological effects of alcohol is fully told, and until the school-books print what is clearly established by scientific investigation, they will have little effects on the habits of children. Boys will very soon discover that deception is being practiced on them, and they will not stop to inquire whether the motives of the deception are good or not. They will be likely to reject Dr. Hewes's sensible advice to avoid the use of alcoholic drinks as foods, simply because they find that those who give them this advice have not told them the whole truth about the physiological effects of alcohol; have indeed, in some cases, told them what experts declare to be false. Let the teetotalers put a little more sound morality and a little less unsound physiology into the school-books, and they will find the children readier to follow their advice.

The *Outlook*, in its issue of July 29 last, went into the question at length, and in an editorial which should be widely circulated as an educational tract, said:

The first condition of permanent reform is that it should be founded on truth. The greatest temptation of an intense reformer is to exaggerate. Intensity of feeling and discrimination in judgment rarely go together. Intense feeling builds reform on a half-truth, and a half-truth is often the most perilous form of falsehood. Anxious to guard his child against the

first approach of skepticism, the father teaches him that the Bible is without any admixture of error. The child builds his faith upon this confidence in an infallible Book. He goes to school and learns that the world was not made in six days, six thousand years ago. His whole system of faith topples over, and he has to reconstruct it from the foundation ; perhaps he may never reconstruct it.

Temperance reformers have not been exempted from this temptation. The intensity of their hatred for drunkenness has blinded their judgment. They have attempted to build reform on indiscriminating generalizations. The most important service that can be rendered to-day to that reform is to demonstrate the erroneous character of these indiscriminating generalizations and substitute for them carefully considered and scientifically accurate statements of principles. For example :

It has been asserted that alcohol is never a food and always a poison. This is scientifically erroneous. It is sometimes a food and sometimes a poison.

It has been assumed that drinking alcohol is a crime, which the law may prohibit by indirection, tho it cannot do so directly. This is politically erroneous. It is the function of criminal law to protect the citizen from the wrong-doing of others, and the mere act of drinking does no wrong except to the man who drinks.

It has been assumed that drinking in moderation is a sin, and that drunkenness is a misfortune ; the moderate drinker has been denounced and the drunkard has been coddled. This is ethically erroneous. Moderate drinking is not a sin which one may denounce in another, and drunkenness is.

It has been assumed that there are two kinds of wine mentioned in the Bible : fermented wine, which it condemns, and unfermented wine, which it commends. This is historically and exegetically erroneous. There is no good ground for believing that any such distinction was ever in the minds of the sacred writers.

It has been assumed that temperance is identical with total abstinence from alcoholic liquors. This is philosophically erroneous. Temperance is such control of all the bodily appetites and passions as makes the body the servant, not the master, of the soul.

In so far as temperance reform is built on these erroneous foundations, it needs to be reconstructed from the foundations. Temperance advocates should, in the interest of temperance, correct these errors and substitute for them the truth. He who attempts to do this will be subjected to vilification and abuse, which are easy to bear ; to misunderstanding and misrepresentation, which are harder to bear ; and to the suspicion that he is in favor of the saloon because he is opposed to the pet errors of some of the most vehement opponents of the saloons, and this will be hardest of all to bear. The true temperance lovers have been timid and silent, because if they spoke they were sure to be misunderstood. But their timid silence has done incalculable injury, because it has suffered so-called temperance reform to be based on error, and reform based on error always injures the cause it seeks to promote. In the temperance cause we have had zeal without knowledge and knowledge without zeal. We need to combine

the zeal and the knowledge; there is needed courage in the hearts of men who know but are silent, and intelligence in the minds of men who do not know and yet speak.

Professor Atwater deserves the warm support of all men who are interested in putting temperance reform on a basis of absolute truth. He has shown courage in conducting the experiments of which we give an accurate account on another page, and in giving the results of these experiments to the public. The most important service to be rendered to the temperance cause to-day is to ascertain exactly what is the true function of alcohol and what its effect on the human body. We cannot successfully fight the illegitimate use of any substance until we know what is its legitimate use.

The National Educational Association reports Dr. Irwin Shepard, secretary of the National Educational Association, has put in operation a plan by which the educational journals will be given opportunity to assist in procuring a larger circulation for the reports issued in the name of the National Educational Association, and by its authority. Individuals or institutions desiring these invaluable reports, single copies or in large numbers, may obtain them on the terms given below by sending their order, together with the amount specified, to the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW :

	Single copy by mail, prepaid	10 or more copies, express prepaid	100 or more copies by freight at purchaser's expense f. o. b., Chicago.
Report of the Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools	25 c.	20 c.	15 c.
Report of the Committee on Normal Schools	15 c.	13 c.	10 c.
Report of the Committee on Rela- tions of Libraries and Schools .	15 c.	13 c.	10 c.
Report of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements	25 c.	20 c.	15 c.

A set of the four reports named will be sent to one address for 75 cents.

Notes and news A distinctly false note is struck in the announcement of the Marathon County (Wis.) training school, itself an interesting and most praiseworthy undertaking, when it is said that "Much of the best instruction in the art of teaching that a pupil ever receives

is the good teaching to which he is subjected in school, and [that] the best methods are acquired under tuition, rather than from observation and criticism." This doctrine is both unsound in theory and untrue in practice.

Mr. Oscar Browning, of King's College, Cambridge, writes to the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW to say that Mr. Cunningham in his paper on "Training of teachers at Cambridge," published in the REVIEW for May, 1899, omitted any mention of the University of Cambridge Day Training College, which maintains a vigorous and useful existence.

The first reports of the attendance at the Los Angeles meeting of the National Educational Association prove to have overestimated the number present. The total is now officially fixed at 11,544, the largest on record, the next in order being the Denver meeting of 1895 with 11,297. Of the 530 active members at Los Angeles, 89 were from the North Atlantic States, 30 from the South Atlantic, 39 from the South Central, 191 from the North Central, and 178 from the Western. In the grand totals California, of course, led with 3957—against 4278 in 1888,—Illinois followed with 993, Missouri with 628, Iowa with 539, New York with 532, Pennsylvania with 448, Ohio with 425, and Colorado with 424.

The British Foreign Office has published as Document No. 504, Miscellaneous Series, 1899, a valuable memorandum on commercial education in the United States, which was prepared by the Bureau of Education at Washington in response to a request from the British ambassador.

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

NOVEMBER, 1899

I

A CENTURY'S PROGRESS IN SCIENCE¹

I do not propose to weary you by what in my hands would be the rash effort of attempting a survey of all the scientific results of the nineteenth century. It will be enough if for a little while I dwell on some few of the salient features distinguishing the way in which we nowadays look upon, and during the coming week shall speak of, the works of nature around us—tho those works themselves, save for the slight shifting involved in a secular change, remain exactly the same—from the way in which they were looked upon and might have been spoken of at a gathering of philosophers at Dover in 1799. And I ask your leave to do so.

In the philosophy of the ancients, earth, fire, air, and water were called “the elements.” It was thought, and rightly thought, that a knowledge of them and of their attributes was a necessary basis of a knowledge of the ways of nature. Translated into modern language, a knowledge of these “elements” of old means a knowledge of the composition of the atmosphere, of water, and of all the other things which we call matter, as well as a knowledge of the general properties of gases, liquids, and solids, and of the nature and effects of combustion. Of all these things our knowledge to-day is large and

¹ From the Presidential Address by Sir Michael Foster, K. C. B., F. R. S., professor of physiology in the University of Cambridge, to the British Association at Dover, September 13, 1899.

exact, and, tho ever enlarging, in some respects complete. When did that knowledge begin to become exact?

To-day the children in our schools know that the air which wraps round the globe is not a single thing, but is made up of two things, oxygen and nitrogen, mingled together. They know, again, that water is not a single thing, but the product of two things, oxygen and hydrogen, joined together. They know that when the air makes the fire burn and gives the animal life, it is the oxygen in it which does the work. They know that all round them things are undergoing that union with oxygen which we call oxidation, and that oxidation is the ordinary source of heat and light. Let me ask you to picture to yourselves what confusion there would be to-morrow, not only in the discussions at the sectional meetings of our association, but in the world at large, if it should happen that in the coming night some destroying touch should wither up certain tender structures in all our brains, and wipe out from our memories all traces of the ideas which cluster in our minds around the verbal tokens, oxygen and oxidation. How could any of us, not the so-called man of science alone, but even the man of business and the man of pleasure, go about his ways lacking those ideas? Yet those ideas were in 1799 lacking to all but a few.

Altho in the third quarter of the seventeenth century the light of truth about oxidation and combustion had flashed out in the writings of John Mayow, it came as a flash only, and died away as soon as it had come. For the rest of that century, and for the greater part of the next, philosophers stumbled about in darkness, misled for the most of the time by the phantom conception which they called phlogiston. It was not until the end of the third quarter of the eighteenth century that the new light, which has burned steadily ever since, lit up the minds of the men of science. The light came at nearly the same time from England and from France. Rounding off the sharp corners of controversy, and joining, as we may fitly do to-day, the two countries as twin bearers of a common crown, we may say that we owe the truth to Cavendish, to Lavoisier, and Priestley. If it was Priestley who was the first

to demonstrate the existence of what we now call oxygen, it is to Lavoisier we owe the true conception of the nature of oxidation and the clear exposition of the full meaning of Priestley's discovery, while the knowledge of the composition of water, the necessary complement of the knowledge of oxygen, came to us thru Cavendish and, we may perhaps add, thru Watt.

The date of Priestley's discovery of oxygen is 1774, Lavoisier's classic memoir *On the nature of the principle which enters into combination with metals during calcination* appeared in 1775, and Cavendish's paper on the composition of water did not see the light until 1784.

During the last quarter of the eighteenth century this new idea of oxygen and oxidation was struggling into existence. How new was the idea is illustrated by the fact that Lavoisier himself at first spoke of that which he was afterward, namely in 1778, led to call oxygen, the name by which it has since been known, as "the principle which enters into combination." What difficulties its acceptance met with is illustrated by the fact that Priestley himself refused to the end of his life to grasp the true bearings of the discovery which he had made. In the year 1799 the knowledge of oxygen, of the nature of water and of air, and indeed the true conception of chemical composition and chemical change, was hardly more than beginning to be, and the century had to pass wholly away before the next great chemical idea, which we know by the name of the atomic theory of John Dalton, was made known. We have only to read the scientific literature of the time to recognize that a truth which is now not only woven as a master-thread into all our scientific conceptions, but even enters largely into the every-day talk and thoughts of educated people, was a hundred years ago struggling into existence among the philosophers themselves. It was all but absolutely unknown to the large world outside those select few.

If there be one word of science which is writ large on the life of the present time, it is the word "electricity"; it is, I take it, writ larger than any other word. The knowledge which it denotes has carried its practical results far and wide into our daily life, while the theoretical conceptions which it signifies

pierce deep into the nature of things. We are to-day proud, and justly proud, both of the material triumphs and of the intellectual gains which it has brought us, and we are full of even larger hopes of it in the future.

At what time did this bright child of the nineteenth century have its birth?

He who listened to the small group of philosophers of Dover, who in 1799 might have discoursed of natural knowledge, would perhaps have heard much of electric machines, of electric sparks, of the electric fluid, and even of positive and negative electricity; for frictional electricity had long been known and carefully studied. Probably one or more of the group, dwelling on the observations which Galvani, an Italian, had made known some twenty years before, developed views on the connection of electricity with the phenomena of living bodies. Possibly one of them was exciting the rest by telling how he had just heard that a professor at Pavia, one Volta, had discovered that electricity could be produced not only by rubbing together particular bodies, but by the simple contact of two metals, and had thereby explained Galvani's remarkable results. For, indeed, it was in that very year, 1799, that electricity, as we now know it, took its birth. It was then that Volta brought to light the apparently simple truths out of which so much has sprung. The world, it is true, had to wait for yet some twenty years before both the practical and the theoretic worth of Volta's discovery became truly pregnant, under the fertilizing influence of another discovery. The loadstone and magnetic virtues had, like the electrifying power of rubbed amber, long been an old story. But, save for the compass, not much had come from it. And even Volta's discovery might have long remained relatively barren had it been left to itself. When, however, in 1819, Oersted made known his remarkable observations on the relations of electricity to magnetism, he made the contact needed for the flow of a new current of ideas. And it is perhaps not too much to say that those ideas, developing during the years of the rest of the century with an ever-accelerating swiftness, have wholly changed man's material relations to the circumstances of life,

and at the same time carried him far in his knowledge of the nature of things.

Of all the various branches of science, none perhaps is to-day, none for these many years past has been, so well known to, even if not understood by, most people as that of geology. Its practical lessons have brought wealth to many; its fairy tales have brought delight to more; and round it hovers the charm of danger, for the conclusions to which it leads touch on the nature of man's beginning.

In 1799 the science of geology, as we now know it, was struggling into birth. In 1783 James Hutton put forward in a brief memoir, his *Theory of the earth*, which in 1795, two years before his death, he expanded into a book; but his ideas failed to lay hold of men's minds until the century had passed away, when, in 1802, they found an able expositor in John Playfair. The very same year that Hutton published his theory, Cuvier came to Paris, almost and forthwith began, with Brogniart, his immortal researches into the fossils of Paris and its neighborhood. About four years later, in the year 1799 itself, William Smith's tabular list of strata and fossils saw the light. It is, I believe, not too much to say that out of these geology, as we now know it, sprang. It was thus in the closing years of the eighteenth century that was begun the work which the nineteenth century has carried forward to such great results. But at that time only the select few had grasped the truth, and even they only the beginning of it. Outside a narrow circle the thoughts, even of the educated, about the history of the globe were bounded by the story of the Deluge—tho the story was often told in a strange fashion—or were guided by fantastic views of the plastic forces of a sportive nature.

In another branch of science, in that which deals with the problems presented by living beings, the thoughts of men in 1799 were also very different from the thoughts of men of to-day. It is a very old quest, the quest after the knowledge of the nature of living beings,—one of the earliest on which man set out, for it promised to lead him to a knowledge of himself, a promise which perhaps is still before us, but the fulfillment

of which is as yet far off. As time has gone on, the pursuit of natural knowledge has seemed to lead man away from himself into the furthestmost parts of the universe, and into secret workings of nature in which he appears to be of little or no account; and his knowledge of the nature of living things, and so of his own nature, has advanced slowly, waiting till the progress of other branches of natural knowledge can bring it aid. Yet in the past hundred years the biologic sciences, as we now call them, have marched rapidly onward.

We may look upon a living body as a machine doing work in accordance with certain laws, and may seek to trace out the working of the inner wheels, how these raise up the lifeless dust into living matter, and let the living matter fall away again into dust, giving out movement and heat. Or we may look upon the individual life as a link in a long chain, joining something which went before to something about to come, a chain whose beginning lies hid in the farthest past, and may seek to know the ties which bind one life to another. As we call up to view the long series of living forms, living now or flitting like shadows on the screen of the past, we may strive to lay hold of the influences which fashion the garment of life. Whether the problems of life are looked upon from the one point of view or the other, we to-day, not biologists only, but all of us, have gained a knowledge hidden even from the philosophers a hundred years ago.

Of the problems presented by the living body viewed as a machine, some may be spoken of as mechanical, others as physical, and yet others as chemical, while some are, apparently, at least, none of these. In the seventeenth century William Harvey, laying hold of the central mechanism of the blood stream, opened up a path of inquiry which his own age and the century which followed trod with marked success. The knowledge of the mechanics of the animal and of the plant advanced apace; but the physical and chemical problems had yet to wait. The eighteenth century, it is true, had its physics and its chemistry; but, in relation at least to the problems of the living being, a chemistry which knew not oxygen and a physics which knew not the electricity of chemical action were of little

avail. The philosopher of 1799, when he discussed the functions of the animal or of the plant involving chemical changes, was fain for the most part, as were his predecessors in the century before, to have recourse to such vague terms as "fermentation," and the like; to-day our treatises on physiology are largely made up of precise and exact expositions of the play of physical agencies and chemical bodies in the living organism. He made use of the words "vital force" or "vital principle," not as an occasional, but as a common, explanation of the phenomena of the living body. During the present century, especially during its latter half, the idea embodied in those words has been driven away from one seat after another; if we use it now when we are dealing with the chemical and physical events of life we use it with reluctance, as a *deus ex machina* to be appealed to only when everything else has failed.

Some of the problems—and those, perhaps, the chief problems—of the living body have to be solved neither by physical nor by chemical methods, but by methods of their own. Such are the problems of the nervous system. In respect to these the men of 1799 were on the threshold of a pregnant discovery. During the latter part of the present century, and especially during its last quarter, the analysis of the mysterious processes in the nervous system, and especially in the brain, which issue as feeling, thought, and the power to move, has been pushed forward with a success conspicuous in its practical, and full of promise in its theoretical, gains. That analysis may be briefly described as a following up of threads. We now know that what takes place along a tiny thread which we call a nerve-fiber differs from that which takes place along its fellow-threads, that differing nervous impulses travel along different nerve-fibers, and that nervous and psychical events are the outcome of the clashing of nervous impulses as they sweep along the closely-woven web of living threads of which the brain is made. We have learned by experiment and by observation that the pattern of the web determines the play of the impulses, and we can already explain many of the obscure problems not only of nervous disease, but of nervous life, by an analysis which is a tracking out the devious and linked

paths of nervous threads. The very beginning of this analysis was unknown in 1799. Men knew that nerves were the agents of feeling and of the movements of muscles; they had learned much about what this part or that part of the brain could do; but they did not know that one nerve-fiber differed from another in the very essence of its work. It was just about the end of the past century, or the beginning of the present one, that an English surgeon began to ponder over a conception which, however, he did not make known until some years later, and which did not gain complete demonstration and full acceptance until still more years had passed away. It was in 1811, in a tiny pamphlet published privately, that Charles Bell put forward his "new idea" that the nervous system was constructed on the principle that "the nerves are not single nerves possessing various powers, but bundles of different nerves, whose filaments are united for the convenience of distribution, but which are distinct in office as they are in origin from the brain." Our present knowledge of the nervous system is to a large extent only an exemplification and expansion of Charles Bell's "new idea," and has its origin in that.

If we pass from the problems of the living organism viewed as a machine to those presented by the varied features of the different creatures who have lived or who still live on the earth, we at once call to mind that the middle years of the present century mark an epoch in biologic thought such as never came before, for it was then that Charles Darwin gave to the world the *Origin of species*. That work, however, with all the far-reaching effects which it has had, could have little or no effect, or, rather, could not have come into existence, had not the earlier half of the century been in travail preparing for its coming. For the germinal idea of Darwin appeals, as to witnesses, to the results of two lines of biologic investigation which were almost unknown to the men of the eighteenth century. To one of these lines I have already referred. Darwin, as we know, appealed to the geological record; and we also know how that record, imperfect as it was then, and imperfect as it must always remain, has since his time yielded the most striking proofs of at least one part of his general conception.

In 1799 there was, as we have seen, no geological record at all.

Of the other line I must say a few words.

To-day the merest beginner in biologic study, or even that exemplar of acquaintance without knowledge, the general reader, is aware that every living being, even man himself, begins its independent existence as a tiny ball, of which we can, even acknowledging to the full the limits of the optical analysis at our command, assert with confidence that in structure, using that word in its ordinary sense, it is in all cases absolutely simple. It is equally well known that the features of form which supply the characters of a grown-up living being, all the many and varied features of even the most complex organism, are reached as the goal of a road, at times a long road, of successive changes; that the life of every being, from the ovum to its full estate, is a series of shifting scenes, which come and go, sometimes changing abruptly, sometimes melting the one into the other, like dissolving views, all so ordained that often the final shape with which the creature seems to begin, or is said to begin, its life in the world is the outcome of many shapes, clothed with which it in turn has lived many lives before its seeming birth.

If we wish to measure how far off in biologic thought the end of the last century stands, not only from the end but even from the middle of this one, we may imagine Darwin striving to write the *Origin of species* in 1799. We may fancy him being told by philosophers explaining how one group of living beings differed from another group because all its members and all their ancestors came into existence at one stroke when the first-born progenitor of the race, within which all the rest were folded up, stood forth as the result of a creative act. We may fancy him listening to a debate between the philosopher who maintained that all the fossils strewn in the earth were the remains of animals or plants churned up in the turmoil of a violent universal flood, and dropped in their places as the waters went away, and him who argued that such were not really the "spoils of living creatures," but the products of some playful plastic power which out of the superabundance of its

energy fashioned here and there the lifeless earth into forms which imitated, but only imitated, those of living things. Could he amid such surroundings by any flight of genius have beat his way to the conception for which his name will ever be known?

Here I may well turn away from the past. It is not my purpose, nor, as I have said, am I fitted, nor is this perhaps the place, to tell even in outline the tale of the work of science in the nineteenth century. I am content to have pointed out that the two great sciences of chemistry and geology took their birth, or at least began to stand alone, at the close of the last century, and have grown to be what we know them now within about a hundred years, and that the study of living beings has within the same time been so transformed as to be to-day something wholly different from what it was in 1799. And, indeed, to say more would be to repeat almost the same story about other things. If our present knowledge of electricity is essentially the child of the nineteenth century, so also is our present knowledge of many other branches of physics. And those most ancient forms of exact knowledge, the knowledge of numbers and of the heavens, whose beginning is lost in the remote past, have, with all other kinds of natural knowledge, moved onward during the whole of the hundred years with a speed which is ever increasing. I have said, I trust, enough to justify the statement that in respect to natural knowledge a great gulf lies between 1799 and 1899. The gulf, moreover, is a twofold one; not only has natural knowledge been increased, but men have run to and fro spreading it as they go. Not only have the few driven far back round the full circle of natural knowledge the dark clouds of the unknown which wrapped us all about, but also the many walk in the zone of light thus increasingly gained. If it be true that the few to-day are, in respect to natural knowledge, far removed from the few of those days, it is also true that nearly all which the few alone knew then, and much which they did not know, has now become the common knowledge of the many.

What, however, I may venture to insist upon here is that the difference in respect to natural knowledge, whatever be the

case with other differences between then and now, is undoubtedly a difference which means progress. The span between the science of that time and the science of to-day is beyond all question a great stride onward.

We may say this, but we must say it without boasting. For the very story of the past which tells of the triumphs of science bids the man of science put away from him all thoughts of vain-glory. And that by many tokens.

Whoever, working at any scientific problem, has occasion to study the inquiries into the same problem made by some fellow-worker in the years long gone by, comes away from that study humbled by one or other of two different thoughts. On the one hand he may find, when he has translated the language of the past into the phraseology of to-day, how near was his forerunner of old to the conception which he thought, with pride, was all his own, not only so true but so new. On the other hand, if the ideas of the investigator of old, viewed in the light of modern knowledge, are found to be so wide of the mark as to seem absurd, the smile which begins to play upon the lips of the modern is checked by the thought, Will the ideas which I am now putting forth, and which I think explain so clearly, so fully, the problem in hand, seem to some worker in the far future as wrong and as fantastic as do these of my forerunner to me? In either case his personal pride is checked. Further, there is written clearly on each page of the history of science, in characters which cannot be overlooked, the lesson that no scientific truth is born anew, coming by itself and of itself. Each new truth is always the offspring of something which has gone before, becoming in turn the parent of something coming after. In this aspect the man of science is unlike, or seems to be unlike, the poet and the artist. The poet is born, not made; he rises up, no man knowing his beginnings; when he goes away, tho men after him may sing his songs for centuries, he himself goes away wholly, having taken with him his mantle, for this he can give to none other. The man of science is not thus creative; he is created. His work, however great it be, is not wholly his own; it is in part the outcome of the work of men who have gone before. Again and again

a conception which has made a name great has come not so much by the man's own effort as out of the fullness of time. Again and again we may read in the words of some man of old the outlines of an idea which in later days has shone forth as a great acknowledged truth. From the mouth of the man of old the idea dropped barren, fruitless; the world was not ready for it, and heeded it not; the concomitant and abutting truths which could give it power to work were wanting. Coming back again in later days, the same idea found the world awaiting it; things were in travail preparing for it; and someone, seizing the right moment to put it forth again, leaped into fame. It is not so much the men of science who make science, as some spirit which, born of the truths already won, drives the man of science onward and uses him to win new truths in turn.

It is because each man of science is not his own master, but one of many obedient servants of an impulse which was at work long before him, and will work long after him, that in science there is no falling back. In respect to other things there may be times of darkness and times of light, there may be risings, decadences, and revivals. In science there is only progress. The path may not be always a straight line, there may be swerving to this side and to that, ideas may seem to return again and again to the same point of the intellectual compass; but it will always be found that they have reached a higher level—they have moved, not in a circle, but in a spiral. Moreover, science is not fashioned as is a house, by putting brick to brick, that which is once put remaining as it was put to the end. The growth of science is that of a living being. As in the embryo phase follows phase, and each member of the body puts on in succession different appearances, tho all the while the same member, so a scientific conception of one age seems to differ from that of a following age, tho it is the same one in the process of being made; and as the dim outlines of the early embryo become, as the being grows more distinct and sharp, like a picture on a screen brought more and more into focus, so the dim gropings and searchings of the men of

science of old are by repeated approximations wrought into the clear and exact conclusions of later times.

The story of natural knowledge, of science, in the nineteenth century, as, indeed, in preceding centuries, is, I repeat, a story of continued progress. There is in it not so much as a hint of falling back, not even of standing still. What is gained by scientific inquiry is gained forever; it may be added to, it may seem to be covered up, but it can never be taken away. Confident that the progress will go on, we cannot help peering into the years to come and straining our eyes to foresee what science will become and what it will do as they roll on. While we do so, the thought must come to us, Will all the increasing knowledge of nature avail only to change the ways of man—will it have no effect on man himself?

The material good which mankind has gained and is gaining thru the advance of science is so imposing as to be obvious to everyone, and the praises of this aspect of science are to be found in the mouths of all. Beyond all doubt science has greatly lessened and has markedly narrowed hardship and suffering; beyond all doubt science has largely increased and has widely diffused ease and comfort. The appliances of science have, as it were, covered with a soft cushion the rough places of life, and that not for the rich only, but also for the poor. So abundant and so prominent are the material benefits of science that in the eyes of many these seem to be the only benefits which she brings. She is often spoken of as if she were useful and nothing more, as if her work were only to administer to the material wants of man.

Is this so?

We may begin to doubt it when we reflect that the triumphs of science which bring these material advantages are in their very nature intellectual triumphs. The increasing benefits brought by science are the results of man's increasing mastery over nature, and that mastery is increasingly a mastery of mind; it is an increasing power to use the forces of what we call inanimate nature in place of the force of his own or other

creatures' bodies; it is an increasing use of mind in place of muscle.

Is it to be thought that that which has brought the mind so greatly into play has had no effect on the mind itself? Is that part of the mind which works out scientific truths a mere slavish machine producing results it knows not how, having no part in the good which in its working it brings forth?

What are the qualities, the features of that scientific mind which has wrought, and is working, such great changes in man's relation to nature? In seeking an answer to this question we have not to inquire into the attributes of genius. Tho much of the progress of science seems to take on the form of a series of great steps, each made by some great man, the distinction in science between the great discoverer and the humble worker is one of degree only, not of kind. As I was urging just now, the greatness of many great names in science is often, in large part, the greatness of occasion, not of absolute power. The qualities which guide one man to a small truth silently taking its place among its fellows, as these go to make up progress, are at bottom the same as those by which another man is led to something of which the whole world rings.

The features of the fruitful scientific mind are in the main three.

In the first place, above all other things, his nature must be one which vibrates in unison with that of which he is in search; the seeker after truth must himself be truthful, truthful with the truthfulness of nature. For the truthfulness of nature is not wholly the same as that which man sometimes calls truthfulness. It is far more imperious, far more exacting. Man, unscientific man, is often content with "the nearly" and "the almost." Nature never is. It is not her way to call the same two things which differ, tho the difference may be measured by less than the thousandth of a milligramme or of a millimeter, or by any other like standard of minuteness. And the man who, carrying the ways of the world into the domain of science, thinks that he may treat nature's differences in any other way than she treats them herself, will find that she resents his conduct; if he in carelessness or in disdain overlooks the

minute difference which she holds out to him as a signal to guide him in his search, the projecting tip, as it were, of some buried treasure, he is bound to go astray, and the more strenuously he struggles on the farther will he find himself from his true goal.

In the second place, he must be alert of mind. Nature is ever making signs to us, she is ever whispering to us the beginnings of her secrets; the scientific man must be ever on the watch, ready at once to lay hold of nature's hint however small, to listen to her whisper however low.

In the third place, scientific inquiry, tho it be pre-eminently an intellectual effort, has need of the moral quality of courage—not so much the courage which helps a man to face a sudden difficulty as the courage of steadfast endurance. Almost every inquiry, certainly every prolonged inquiry, sooner or later goes wrong. The path, at first so straight and clear, grows crooked and gets blocked: the hope and enthusiasm, or even the jaunty ease, with which the inquirer set out, leave him, and he falls into a slough of despond. That is the critical moment calling for courage. Struggling thru the slough he will find on the other side the wicket-gate opening up the real path; losing heart he will turn back and add one more stone to the great cairn of the unaccomplished.

But, I hear someone say, these qualities are not the peculiar attributes of the man of science; they may be recognized as belonging to almost everyone who has commanded or deserved success, whatever may have been his walk of life. That is so. That is exactly what I would desire to insist, that the men of science have no peculiar virtues, no special powers. They are ordinary men, their characters are common, even commonplace. Science, as Huxley said, is organized common sense, and men of science are common men, drilled in the ways of common sense.

For their life has this feature. Tho in themselves they are no stronger, no better than other men, they possess a strength which, as I just now urged, is not their own, but is that of the science whose servants they are. Even in his apprenticeship, the scientific inquirer, while learning what has been done

before his time, if he learns it aright, so learns it that what is known may serve him not only as a vantage-ground whence to push off into the unknown, but also as a compass to guide him in his course. And when fitted for his work he enters on inquiry itself, what a zealous, anxious guide, what a strict and, because strict, helpful schoolmistress does nature make herself to him! Under her care every inquiry, whether it bring the inquirer to a happy issue or seem to end in naught, trains him for the next effort. She so orders her ways that each act of obedience to her makes the next act easier for him, and step by step she leads him on toward that perfect obedience which is complete mastery.

Indeed, when we reflect on the potency of the discipline of scientific inquiry we cease to wonder at the progress of scientific knowledge. The results actually gained seem to fall so far short of what under such guidance might have been expected to have been gathered in that we are fain to conclude that science has called to follow her, for the most part, the poor in intellect and the wayward in spirit. Had she called to her service the many acute minds who have wasted their strength struggling in vain to solve hopeless problems, or who have turned their energies to things other than the increase of knowledge; had she called to her service the many just men who have walked straight without the need of a rod to guide them, how much greater than it has been would have been the progress of science, and how many false teachings would the world have been spared! To men of science themselves, when they consider their favored lot, the achievements of the past should serve not as a boast, but as a reproach.

If there be any truth in what I have been urging, that the pursuit of scientific inquiry is itself a training of special potency, giving strength to the feeble and keeping in the path those who are inclined to stray, it is obvious that the material gains of science, great as they may be, do not make up all the good which science brings or may bring to man. We especially, perhaps, in these later days, thru the rapid development of the physical sciences, are too apt to dwell on the material gains alone. As a child in its infancy looks upon its mother

only as a giver of good things, and does not learn till in after days how she was also showing her love by carefully training it in the way it should go, so we, too, have thought too much of the gifts of science, overlooking her power to guide.

Man does not live by bread alone, and science brings him more than bread. It is a great thing to make two blades of grass grow where before one alone grew; but it is no less great a thing to help a man to come to a just conclusion on the questions with which he has to deal. We may claim for science that while she is doing the one she may be so used as to do the other also. The dictum just quoted, that science is organized common sense, may be read as meaning that the common problems of life which common people have to solve are to be solved by the same methods by which the man of science solves his special problems. It follows that the training which does so much for him may be looked to as promising to do much for them. Such aid can come from science on two conditions only. In the first place, this her influence must be acknowledged; she must be duly recognized as a teacher no less than as a hewer of wood and a drawer of water. And the pursuit of science must be followed not by the professional few only, but, at least in such measure as will insure the influence of example, by the many. But this latter point I need not urge before this great association, whose chief object during more than half a century has been to bring within the fold of science all who would answer to the call. In the second place, it must be understood that the training to be looked for from science is the outcome, not of the accumulation of scientific knowledge, but of the practice of scientific inquiry. Man may have at his fingers' ends all the accomplished results and all the current opinions of any one or of all the branches of science, and yet remain wholly unscientific in mind; but no one can have carried out even the humblest research without the spirit of science in some measure resting upon him. And that spirit may in part be caught even without entering upon an actual investigation in search of a new truth. The learner may be led to old truths, even the oldest, in more ways than one. He may be brought abruptly to a truth in its finished form,

coming straight to it like a thief climbing over the wall; and the hurry and press of modern life tempt many to adopt this quicker way. Or he may be more slowly guided along the path by which the truth was reached by him who first laid hold of it. It is by this latter way of learning the truth, and by this alone, that the learner may hope to catch something at least of the spirit of the scientific inquirer.

This is not the place, nor have I the wish, to plunge into the turmoil of controversy; but, if there be any truth in what I have been urging, then they are wrong who think that in the schooling of the young science can be used with profit only to train those for whom science will be the means of earning their bread. It may be that from the point of view of the pedagogic art the experience of generations has fashioned out of the older studies of literature an instrument of discipline of unusual power, and that the teaching of science is as yet but a rough tool in unpracticed hands. That, however, is not an adequate reason why scope should not be given for science to show the value which we claim for it as an intellectual training fitted for all sorts and conditions of men. Nor need the studies of humanity and literature fear *her* presence in the schools, for if her friends maintain that that teaching is one-sided, and therefore misleading, which deals with the doings of man only, and is silent about the works of nature, in the sight of which he and his doings shrink almost to nothing, *she* herself would be the first to admit that that teaching is equally wrong which deals only with the works of nature and says nothing about the doings of man, who is, to us at least, nature's center.

Looking back, then, in this last year of the eighteen hundreds, on the century which is drawing to its close, while we may see in the history of scientific inquiry much which, telling the man of science of his shortcomings and his weakness, bids him be humble, we also see much, perhaps more, which gives him hope. Hope is indeed one of the watchwords of science. In the latter-day writings of some who know not science, much may be read which shows that the writer is losing or has lost hope in the future of mankind. There are not a few of these; their repeated utterances make a sign of the times. Seeing in

matters lying outside science few marks of progress and many tokens of decline or of decay, recognizing in science its material benefits only, such men have thoughts of despair when they look forward to the times to come. But if there be any truth in what I have attempted to urge to-night; if the intellectual, if the moral influences of science are no less marked than her material benefits; if, moreover, that which she has done is but the earnest of that which she shall do, such men may pluck up courage and gather strength by laying hold of her garment. We men of science at least need not share their views or their fears. Our feet are set, not on the shifting sands of the opinions and of the fancies of the day, but on a solid foundation of verified truth, which by the labors of each succeeding age is made broader and more firm. To us the past is a thing to look back upon, not with regret, not as something which has been lost never to be regained, but with content, as something whose influence is with us still, helping us on our further way. With us, indeed, the past points not to itself, but to the future; the golden age is in front of us, not behind us; that which we do know is a lamp whose brightest beams are shed into the unknown before us, showing us how much there is in front and lighting up the way to reach it. We are confident in the advance because, as each one of us feels that any step forward which he may make is not ordered by himself alone and is not the result of his own sole efforts in the present, but is, and that in large measure, the outcome of the labors of others in the past, so each one of us has the sure and certain hope that as the past has helped him, so his efforts, be they great or be they small, will be a help to those to come.

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II

CHANGES IN THE TEACHING OF LATIN IN GERMANY ¹

Among the changes that have been made in gymnasial instruction, which in most of the German states were inaugurated by a new program in the beginning of 1890, the most welcome is the final setting aside of that antiquated educational goal—Latin composition. For centuries the ability to write Latin correctly and, if might be, elegantly, was the chief and almost only end of all the instruction. This was natural and necessary so long as Latin was the language of science and of the higher culture. But after the use of the modern tongues became general in literature and in science—which for Germany has been the case only since the beginning of the latter half of the eighteenth century—the need of writing Latin had passed away. Nevertheless, under the ruling influence of the intellectual trend of the new humanism, the schools went on in the track of old habit. They still made Latin composition the most important of their disciplines, the Prussian schools, especially, demanding the *specimina* of Latin eloquence as the essential test of scholarship. This might last so long as the teachers of the gymnasiums were new humanist philologists, and the students, for the most part, were themselves to be theologians, jurists, or philologists. It began to grow intolerable when, on the one hand, the linguists losing their ascendancy in the school, facility in writing Latin became increasingly rare; and, on the other hand, a growing number of students were looking forward to professional or scientific careers as physicians, technologists, officers, and the like. Since 1870 the complaints of teachers and of scholars, and with them, of parents also, under this yoke of Latin drill were heard more and more frequently. The rigid gymnasial ortho-

¹ Translated from *Pädagogisches Archiv*, by Frederic L. Luqueer, Principal of P. S. No. 22, Brooklyn, N. Y.

doxy alone was deaf to them; or, rather, it knew how to persuade the school authorities to stand as a breakwater against these demands of the time. It is the same short-sighted wisdom that is so familiar to Germans in affairs of church and of state: contempt of popular opinion, or of the *Zeitgeist*, is the beginning of this wisdom. True, it is not wisdom altogether to surrender one's self to it; but still less is it wisdom openly to condemn it. To be in advance of the time to feel what is coming—this is what a people truly needs of its government, as Goethe says:

“Worauf alles ankommt, das ist sehr simpel;
Vater verfuge, eh's das Gesind spürt.
Da und dorthin flattert ein Wimpel,
Steuermann weiss, wohin euch der Wind führt.”

But for our government of schools many will find, I fear, these other verses of Goethe more applicable:

“Über ein Ding wird viel geplaudert,
Viel beraten und lange gezaudert:
Und endlich giebt ein böses Muss
Der Sache widrig den Beschluss.”

The hard necessity—the *böse Muss*—came in the year 1890. The glory of Latin faded out over night; its praises were silent.

What place, then, and what order, is instruction in Latin to have? That is the next question. A timely and thoughtful answer is given by a recent work of P. Dettweiler, director of the gymnasium in Bensheim, Hesse.² Many will doubtless be interested in the things treated by this book; they touch a wider circle than that of teachers and students. I shall try to indicate in outline the changes that have taken place.

First a general remark as to the position of the author in respect to the reform of 1891. Dettweiler introduces himself as a disciple and co-worker of H. Schiller of Giessen. At the outset he takes open stand upon the new ground. He is no friend of sick-minded pessimism, and sees in the passive antipathy that here and there still opposes the new, a danger far

² *Handbuch der Erziehungs- und Unterrichtslehre für höhere Schulen*, herausgegeben von A. Baumeister. III Vol.: *Didaktik und Methodik einzelner Lehrfächer*. I Pt. *Lateinisch*, by P. Dettweiler. München: Beck'sche Buchhandlung, 1895.

more threatening to the humanistic gymnasium than that offered by the modern spirit or by the favor or disfavor of prominent men. He quotes an English authority, "a good patriot and true statesman always seeks to make the best of the material at hand"; which wisdom, moreover, Aristotle long ago expressed: out of the given make the best.

I cannot, without modification, hold the new plan of studies to be "final and adequate." Courses of study are apt to be too short-lived for us to think of any as final; they, like all laws in the new German Empire, appear subject to decay. I do not believe that the "unity school" of Frick and Schiller, which follows the Prussian order of instruction of 1891, is the final form of our higher schools. I am rather convinced that, better than the unity school which teaches everything, are the two co-ordinate schools, one of which carries on the classic-humanistic studies with greater force and freedom than can the unity school, while the other, by the omission of Greek, gains time for an intensive study of the modern languages and sciences. Nor would Dettweiler, I think, oppose such a scheme. He would gladly make more room in the gymnasium for the classics. A course of instruction, to please him, must lead to free, yet lasting, intimacy with the ancient world. There should be speaking acquaintance with grammar and composition, but no exhaustive study of linguistic details.

The work of Dettweiler, to continue with this, is in two parts: a brief general view, in which the notion underlying the aim and method of Latin instruction is developed; and a comprehensive and detailed treatment, in which are described as fully as could be desired, the course of instruction at its several stages, in the two lower, the three intermediate, and finally the four upper classes. The actual course pursued at the gymnasium in Giessen forms the basis of description. We are not bidden: thus must ye do; but are told thus we have done, and so it is—a very happy form for a book on education. I shall now compare some of the main points of the old system with those described in the work under consideration.

As to the aim, the essential difference is that the old system,

as it ruled in Prussia until 1891, of course with many amendments and modifications, made the writing of Latin the chief end of all instruction. Grammar and composition were its direct means; reading, only the indirect. In the new system, the reading of Latin is the goal, and everything else is subordinate. The essential fruit that is expected from the instruction is historical culture, the ability to understand the present and its relations thru a knowledge of its beginnings and development, more thoroly than can he who has not heard antiquity speak with its own tongue. Those who strive for this also gain, unwittingly, what formerly was the boasted outcome of the Latin discipline, namely, that formal culture which comes from continuous exercise in the comprehension, construction, and expression of linguistic forms of the thoughts and of the facts of the past: ability to see, to judge, and to speak, the *sapere et fari*.

As regards method, the break with the old system, in the form it had taken in the first half of this century, is complete. I may state the difference as follows, tho it must be remembered that in actual practice the two systems often correspond in many particulars. In essence, the old system was based upon the home work of the pupil. The teacher set a task. It was learned or worked over at home. At the next lesson the teacher conducted a recitation, giving needed help or criticism. The new system, in its essentials, is based upon the common efforts of the pupils in class. The lesson-hours are not for the setting of tasks and their recitation; but for teaching and class-study. The instructor is to teach the pupil to see, to find, to work. In the three divisions of language study—grammar, reading, writing—there is the same difference.

To begin with reading. The ruling method, so familiar to those who are older, was that of home preparation. A portion of the author that was being read was daily set the pupil to study at home. By the aid of dictionaries, grammars, and annotated editions he was so to work over the passage as to be able to account for the words and for the grammatical points involved, and to give a tolerable translation. In class, one and another were called upon; the teacher helped them out,

gave the needed explanations, and, finally, a model version. This method, after supplanting the older system of exposition and repetition,—the teacher first translating the text and the pupil repeating the translation,—became general only at the time of the new humanistic movement. It was claimed that it, more than any other method, had the merit of awakening the pupil from a passive state, and of developing, even in his reading of the author, his self-activity; opportunity for which was before offered only by composition. In this is seen a beginning of the trend from writing to reading.

Without doubt this method, in practice, came far short of its claims, however well it might have worked under ideal conditions. Little by little, harmful side-effects appeared, which threatened to make the system miscarry altogether. The chief of these were as follows. The preparation system overburdened industrious and conscientious students, while it tempted the light-minded into various underhand ways. The former thumbed for hours grammar and dictionary, and worried perhaps over the obscure enlightenment of the notes in annotated editions—all often without satisfying result. The less studious, on the other hand, soon learned to avail themselves of the various means abundantly furnished by booksellers in answer to the new demand. They used translations, or “ponies,” or simply copied from their neighbors. The preparation system presupposes small classes that are in easy control, and the supremacy of classical study in the school. With large classes, and with lessons in all possible subjects, it grew intolerable. Recitation hours were strained testing-times of the preparation. The relations between teacher and pupil were poisoned by deception and distrust. The useless racking of unprepared or incapable pupils was a vexation to the better students and of no avail to the others. The tone of the lecture room was but too often a mingling of anxiety and listlessness.

To avoid these evils the new system makes the lesson hour essentially the time for preparation. In common effort, the class under the lead of the teacher seek to master the words and ideas of the text. Dettweiler thus describes the process. A passage, of sufficient unity of thought, is taken for the hour.

The teacher in a few words first indicates the contents. Then he explains unfamiliar words, references, and other difficulties of the text. Allowing a short time for looking thru the first paragraph, he then calls upon one to translate; if there is hesitation, quick aid is sought from another. When the entire passage has thus been gone thru, it is summarized either in German or in Latin, so that the pupil may underscore in his book the leading words. Finally, the teacher himself gives a good translation. At the beginning of the next hour there is a brief review, and perhaps the text is read by a pupil. The customary reading the text aloud by the pupil before it is understood is given up as useless. The teacher, however, may first read the passage aloud: a proper reading being a half-explanation. When a selection of fair length, or a short work, has been studied thru in this way, its contents are reviewed, and the gain in literary or in historical knowledge made sure. The use of good German is insisted upon from beginning to end; the jargon of school translation is tabooed. Short written exercises supplement the oral exercise, and brief notes on the literary or historical points of the text read are written in German, either in class or at home. Dettweiler presents a full series of these short studies as they were carried out by pupils of all grades in the school. Now and again a written translation in German is required—of course after the class study has been had,—as a useful exercise of attention and of memory. Finally, it is recommended that note-books be kept, in which the linguistic and historical information gained may be put in systematic order. This needs the direction of the teacher. In the upper classes, the notes thus arranged furnish material for short essays on the subject covered by the reading. Dettweiler states that experience has convinced him that pupils learn to read by this method in less time than by the old. In fact, unless under the most favorable conditions, the preparation system had but little good result. By it the idle pupils strengthened that very habit of inactivity which the system was designed to correct. The pupil relied upon it without energetic work on his own; while the teacher, on his part, formed the habit of constantly interrupting the recitation of

the pupil in trying to set him right. There was no confidence that the language could be acquired; and many passed from the school with the feeling of being unable even to read an author. In the new method, the emulation stirred by common effort enlivens the hour; the extemporaneous work, it is hoped, will escape the temptation to underhand means of preparation; and the habit of reading at sight encourages further reading. It is true that with crowded classes, unwilling pupils, and burdened teachers, this new method will work no wonders. But we are to have a further reckoning with all these. The new way demands more of pupil and of teacher; especially of the latter, as Dettweiler emphasizes repeatedly. He must have great accuracy and quickness of didactic insight, and power to call forth and to lead his pupil's mind; otherwise the lessons will drag. Dettweiler does not count much upon private reading; there is no time for it. And in this, as things are, perhaps he is right.

A word may be added concerning the choice of authors. Formerly reference was had chiefly to the language; that is, to its availability, in words or turns of expression, for Latin composition; and Cicero was the favorite. Now, regard must be had to the content, and to the literary worth. The historians are given more attention, and in this Dettweiler is at one with the Prussian course of study. Cæsar, Livy, and Tacitus have first place, with a view of making real to the pupil the Roman life, the Roman *virtus*; and also, particularly, that in them he may trace the origins of modern Europe. Afterward, Cicero, Vergil, and Horace make known the culture of the time of the Empire, of which the world we live in is the inheritor. Of Cicero he would use, not, as would the Prussian program, the orations and letters alone, but also the philosophical writings, especially the *De officiis*. These give a much clearer insight into the intellectual and spiritual world of antiquity than do the orations.

The importance is urged of the class reading something that is a whole, not an extract cut short arbitrarily by the close of hour or of term. Generally it is best to take a somewhat long work, as the *Æncid*, the *Gallic war*, or Livy, reading on the suc-

cessive days passages each of which has unity of content. At the end, the pupil must feel that he has obtained a connected view of events or of ideas. Regard for the sense demands that authors be not read two or three at a time, but that one be finished first. The comprehension is to be aided in every way—by pictorial illustration, by representations of utensils and buildings, by maps, and reproductions of art work. All these might be neglected so long as the acquirement of the language was the main thing, tho such neglect worked harm. For the natural interest in reading is directed to the thought; and if this be not met, all pleasure in reading dies—an effect that Leibniz had already noted. Schools, he once said bitterly, are places where one learns to hate books.

There are decided changes also in both the other divisions of instruction. The old grammatical instruction set paragraphs in a text-book, which the pupils had to learn at home and recite upon: paradigms, rules, and so on. Here also the new method is based upon self-activity in united class work. The teacher, as far as possible, has the class itself discover in the examples the forms and rules, and describe them. He can, as is shown, have the pupil look for and tell the case-endings in simple words or in short sentences. The blackboard is constantly used. What grows before the eyes of the pupil, fixes itself more easily and firmly than a rigid and complete paradigm. In the same way the pupil has from the teacher the syntactical forms. Everywhere it is sought to connect the new with the old. Forms of the German itself are explained to the pupil; and thus from the beginning he sees what is like or unlike the foreign idiom. He is shown by examples how he can pass from the German constructions to the at first strange but equivalent syntactical forms of the Latin, to the accusative with the infinitive, or to the ablative absolute, and the like. Grammatical information is limited to the most essential; for if one attempts systematic completeness too early, his use of the language is apt to be "more Roman than Rome," because of the arbitrary and over-nice application of the rules—a thing which leads to such fearful "waste of innocent red ink." But here the object of the grammatical teaching is to

give a good understanding only of the forms met with in the reading.

Finally, less time is spent in Latin composition, and the method has been changed. Its one purpose is to give surer acquaintance with the linguistic forms, and so to aid the reading. The old method, everywhere in use about the middle of the century, was this: A selection from the exercise-book was given, and the pupil set himself at home to translate this as best he could, aided by grammar and dictionary. The teacher took the production to his home, corrected it, counted the mistakes, and at the next lesson remarked upon this or that characteristic of the pupil's work. Here, again, the new method substitutes class work for work at home. In the lower grades much is translated orally, short sentences are formed or those of the selection varied, and the blackboard is in constant use. In the intermediate grades the pupils give short oral summaries of what has been read. Then the teacher puts together a German text based upon what has once been read, and the class translates it. He first calls attention to difficulties, either perhaps by merely pointing them out, or removing them before the writing begins; for instance, by suiting the German expression to the Latin idiom. The pupil is to hear and to write as little as possible of the faulty, least of all to rewrite mistakes. At intervals a written exercise is set for home work, as a test of the scholar's knowledge and ability. In the upper classes translation into Latin may be omitted altogether. In its stead short papers may be written in German on the points of language or of style noticed in reading the author.

These are, in a general way, the differences between the old method of teaching Latin and the new. Of course the new was not discovered as a whole yesterday or to-day. Much of it has long been the practice of many schools. But I am perhaps right in saying that here the new method has first been formed into a unity, with all details thought out and made to work in harmony. Educational theory and school experience have joined in producing it.

I have read Dettweiler's book with great interest from beginning to end, and have been taught much by it. I am sure

that it will be of service to all who in this department of instruction wish to know the possible and real. Its great merit is its presentation of the actual and concrete. Swelling words and generalities are absent. Nor is there the usual cloud of literary witnesses. Only a modest reference is made to what the author has read with profit. Interest in the thing itself rules both the author and his work. It is true that many who are themselves experienced will disagree with this or that, and rightly. A method depends not alone upon the conditions of the case, but also upon the personality of the teacher. That there is not, nor can be, any fixed, authoritative method is the chief truth of the entire book. This is implied in its very form, which is descriptive, not imperative. But it is just this that gives it its welcome and its worth. I believe no teacher will lightly lay the book aside, without having been moved to think and to compare, and perhaps to try and test himself therewith. Naturally young teachers most of all, who are still seeking a method suited to themselves and to their work, will be grateful readers of such a book; tho they must not forget the grain of salt without which even the best method becomes pedantry.

I myself have no doubt but that things will take the general course mapped out here. And I believe that this kind of classical instruction will win again the sympathy of the cultured, which was lost when it was attempted to galvanize the old Latin drill. At any rate the age of Goethe will not return; nor do I regret it. Our goal is before us, not behind us.

I would touch but one other point. Dettweiler speaks with general approval of Prussia's new program of instruction; and naturally, for, upon the whole, it agrees with his views. But for one feature of the new order he has no liking—that is for the so-called "final examinations." He is glad that all of South Germany has abolished them. In fact the new order of instruction could hardly have done anything worse than the prescribing of this new state examination. It and its necessary effects are in such complete opposition to the professed educational character of the new order as a whole, that its presence would be inexplicable, were it not that there are

other traces also which indicate that the new plan of 1891 is rather a mechanical aggregate than an organic growth. The final examination, illogically enough, calls for a written translation into Latin and Greek. The plan of instruction speaks much of the inductive method; the final examination would go back to answers in stereotyped formulas. The plan sets itself against verbal memorizing, against drilling and the sounding of cymbals; while the final examination would perfect these as never before. Formerly, in the upper third class and lower second, connected study of the authors was begun; now, the examination compels the teachers, for their own sake and their pupils', to train them more strenuously than ever *ad hoc*. Dettweiler expresses the hope that the minister of public instruction will become more liberal. We may indeed wish and hope so. But even a minister, tho personally a man of insight and judgment and of benevolence, cannot prevent the system from having its natural results. In an examination before the state official, and most of all in an examination of so many pupils at a time, as would be the rule, the things that count are faultless composition and ready answers. The general knowledge and ability of the pupil are not tested here,—these count perhaps with the teacher who has known him long,—but the correctness of his extemporaneous work, and his confidence and ease in answering every sort of question. No time is given for unfolding the question, nor for thought; the less reflection apparent, the completer the knowledge. This is what the examination calls for and what it will bring about. Whether those examined have read their authors with interest or not, whether they have thought over, as their maturity would make possible, the content and form, is of little moment in the examination; composition without mistakes, and "ready wit," are happy things for the examined. Drill will further these, altho it helps the intellectual growth but little. Out of pure benevolence to pupil and parent, the teacher will fall in with the demand. And even if written translations into German were substituted for extemporizing in Latin and Greek, the result would be the same. The drill would be directed to this end. Dettweiler argues otherwise. This would happen, he thinks,

only with teachers who make everything mechanical. But I believe that it would result wherever the influence of the official examination is felt. The effect of every examination that ceases to be an affair of intimacy between teacher and pupil is this: the attention of the teacher and of the taught is turned aside from the subject itself to the passing of the test; and to pass a test, which tries the school acquirements of masses of pupils, will always be easiest to those who have been fittingly drilled. That men thereby suffer inner despoise and loss does not trouble the examination paper a whit. Paper has no heart. Nay, it even has the power to destroy the heart of those who live with it too long. We know what Bismarck in anger once said of the general privy council. And what is to be said, when the new program both increases the demand upon the intense activity of the teacher, and also puts upon him more hours of duty, the former maximum now being made the average? And when, at the very time that every official speech expressed concern for unemployed candidates for school positions, the program, by calling for a less number of hours in the aggregate, lessened the number of these positions? And when the overcrowding of classes—a condition that is the most prolific cause of every school evil—exists now as before? In these lies the need of reform; not in increased severity of examination or of control. One may well marvel that the protests of teachers and parents are not more frequent. But the school authorities are deceived, if they think the silence a sign of satisfaction with their doings. I fear lest it is rather a sign of lassitude and despair. There is no help for it, and so it must be borne.

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III

SOCIAL RECAPITULATION

The law which this paper wishes to demonstrate is the law that with progressive civilization ancestral adult experiences tend to be perpetuated and socialized in games and plays, or that the child tends to recapitulate socially the history of his race.

Among so-called child-study men there is a manifest endeavor to treat the experiences of the child too exclusively as organic inheritances from early animal and savage life. Nearly all animal and savage characteristics are spoken of as if inherited organically. Too little attention is paid to the influence of the social heritage of the race. There is undoubtedly a social heredity as well as an organic heredity. Organic heredity may be taken to mean, roughly speaking, the transmission of the congenital characteristics of parents to their descendants. Social heredity, on the contrary, may be taken to mean transmission from parents to the children of the improved environment where the improved environment means the accumulation of oral and written tradition and knowledge, social institutions, the extensions and adaptations of our sense and motor organs as seen in tools and instruments. Examples of what a child might be without the influence of the improved social environment, may be studied in the cases reported to us of wild and feral men. Take, for instance, the case, reported by Cornish in his *Plays of wild animals*, of the child exposed in early infancy and brought up by wild animals. When discovered the child acted like the animals among which he was brought up. He ran on all-fours, ate and drank like a wolf, emitted growls and barks like an animal, tore the clothes and flesh of the village children, and behaved, in short, like a wild animal. Little or no traces of a recapitulation of his human ancestry were in evidence.

An environment, consisting of the proper social stimuli,

seems necessary to educate or elicit the latent, inherited, human-savage traits and characteristics. An illustration of this is seen in the premature development of the slum-children in our large cities. Absence of imagination-stimuli, such as myths, legends, tales, nursery rhymes, poetry, etc., causes a too-ready transition to the stage of adult experiences, resulting in a lack of the necessary sub-structure for the complete, all-around development necessitated by the exacting demands of a highly evolved society. Thus the child inherits latent, human, ancestral traits which need only the proper social stimuli for their completer evolution and development. Inasmuch as the savage mind and the child mind, and in a lesser degree, the uneducated mind, possess organically a similar nature, similar social stimuli are necessary for their development. Thus we have the child reacting in a manner similar to that of the savage—repeating the same activities in the same earnest, objective way, but yet in a shortened, abbreviated, and fanciful manner, as in games and plays. Without going thru these stages, the child suffers prematurely physical, mental, and moral ossification.

Many of the games and plays described by Karl Gross in his recent works on play as instinctive activities are only partially organic reactions. The social stimuli necessary for these organic reactions are supplied by social tradition, oral or written. Without the social stimuli the instinctive reactions lie dormant. This social inheritance of the child was originally, in at least the majority of cases, the serious adult ancestral experiences and activities of our far remote ancestors. In this way, the child is recapitulating socially the history of its race. This accounts for the serious objective, business-like way in which we play.

A few examples, tho probably well known, may illustrate the wide application and prevalence of this law of social recapitulation:

There is a certain game played by English boys and girls the origin of which may be traced back to the early form of marriage by capture. Our marriage ceremony, all-necessary as it is to preserve our social institutions and a high morality, is

oftentimes but a merry festival. The "best man" in the village was once needed to effect the capture of a bride, who was one of the most useful and valuable chattels a father possessed. The throwing of rice at a wedding was originally throwing of all sorts of missiles by the enraged relatives of the bride at the successful bridegroom as he carried off his prize.

Grimm informs us that divinities form the core of many of our games and pastimes. The goddess Ostara, or Eástre (Easter), is preserved to us in the name of our Easter festival. Our festivals and games at Easter are probably in their origin rites pertaining to the goddess Ostara. Christianity was wise in grafting on the newer doctrines to the well-established heathen customs and practices. These Easter games came down from dark and remote ages. Easter eggs and the Easter tale, which preachers told from the pulpit for the people's amusement, are old heathen rites.¹ So with the heathen Yule festivities and many others.

Fairy tales, with their frequent metamorphoses, may be traced back to god-myths, and even to the earlier stage of the animal-epos. In the myths of primitive America the methods of primitive thought are perhaps better illustrated than in the myths of other countries. Curtin² divides the myths of primitive America into two groups, creation myths and action myths. According to the first class there existed at first a world of primitive people or gods, who were different from us entirely. These people were almost innumerable, dwelling together in perfect harmony for an indefinite length of time. The minds of these people, with but a few exceptions, changed, however. Discord broke out, one wanting one thing and another another thing. Conflict set in and the consequence was that in the struggle some were changed into plants, some into animals, others into minerals, and so on. Thus arose the world as you see it now. Creation by metamorphoses seemed a reasonable way to account for the origin of things. After this cycle of myths come the myths which attempt to describe the present world as it now exists with all its happenings. These

¹ Grimm, *German mythology*

² Curtin, *Creation myths of primitive America*, p. xx

are the action myths. They describe the conflicts and struggles ensuing upon the creative metamorphoses. Light and darkness, heat and cold, and heroes of all description struggle for the mastery. The value of these myths is that by their means we gain an insight into primitive modes of thought and action. The lives of the first people are described in creation myths and presented as models (early education) upon which faithful Indians fashion their lives at all times and places. The lineal descendants of these and other myths often serve suitably as mental food and appropriate social stimuli for the pupils of to-day.

In the tale of Dornröschen (Thorn-rose or Sleeping Beauty) we have the modern representative of the story of Brünhilde, one of the Walküre, or guardian spirits. Just as Dornröschen goes to sleep from the prick of a spindle in the nursery tale, so Brünhilde goes to sleep from the prick of the svefn-thorn or sleep-thorn. Spindles are an essential characteristic of all the wise women of antiquity among Teutons, Celts, and Greeks.³ So in the story of *Jack the Giant-killer* the hero was originally, I believe, no less than Thor, god of our ancestors.

Local gods also tend to become local saints and sometimes the favorite by-words of merry banqueters and toast-drinkers. They become patron gods and then symbols of the country and its greatness; as, for example, St. George of England. Children still ascribe to their gods exclusive, tribal notions. He is their peculiar God and they are his peculiar chosen people. When Christianity came into contact with the early religion of the Teutons many of the Teuton gods and goddesses were transformed into demons or devils and their priestesses into witches who possessed great power with these out-cast devils.⁴ The wise women of the tribes became outcasts living in caves and in the fields. They were surrounded by the domestic animals they had reclaimed from a savage state and by the domestic instruments and tools which they had probably invented, such as the goat and the cat, the broom and the

³ Grimm, op. cit., vol. i. p. 419

⁴ Karl Pearson, *The chances of death*, "Woman as witch"; Grimm, *German mythology*, vol. iii. p. 986; Otis T. Mason, *Woman's share in primitive culture*.

fork. The greater the ignorance of the people the greater the superstition and the more power ascribed to the demons and witches. Even to-day the "orphant Annie" tells the children: "An' the gobble-uns 'll git you ef you don't watch out!"

Numberless stories and legends, from the period of the Middle Ages and earlier, show the extent to which demons filled the consciousness of the age. The devil was almost the *Zeitgeist* of the times. God was a judge and ruler and nigh akin to popular notions of the devil prevalent among the ignorant to-day. Anselm's doctrine of the vicarious atonement owes its origin and prevalence to the belief in the devil's semi-divine power and lawyer-like and business-like method of carrying on his work. The *Dies Irae* represents a celestial Roman court of law in full function. The child-mind seems to possess an appetite for a similar mental pabulum. Many children grasp after such details with a curious avidity. Hobgoblins and demons are natural enough to them. The forces at work in nature are to them, as to the savages and uneducated of all ages, persons like unto themselves, animated with yearnings and strivings, and torn with the passions and impulses of an ill-regulated life. These hobgoblins and demons are, after all, to the child-mind somewhat theatrical in their nature. Like games they are serious objective experiences, but, nevertheless, considered to be more or less unreal. There is more or less a pleasure-pain element connected with these fears and scares, showing the increasing play element in these experiences.⁵ The game of hide-and-seek illustrates my meaning.

Another strong instance of this doctrine of social recapitulation is that of the rite of the blood-covenant. It was once undoubtedly a strong social bulwark. Each participant drank of the blood of the other. Incisions were usually made in the arms, the blood was caught, and an eternal compact was completed by each drinking the other's blood. The relationship established was one supposed to be more lasting and closer than

⁵ Conway, *Demonology and devil-love*; G. S. Hall, *American journal of psychology*, "Fears."

that of brotherhood. Gradually, however, wine was substituted for the blood. To-day we drink each other's health as a mere pleasing, after-dinner pastime, forgetful of the life-and-death earnestness of the times in which the custom arose.⁶ The ancestral adult experience has become a play or game.

The arts of singing and dancing are certainly very ancient. Leaving out of view the fact that they were often the expressions of deep erotic tendencies, and possibly irradiations of an erotic life, it may be said that singing and dancing were the schools of savage life. By these actions adolescents were initiated into the mysteries of the tribe, were taught the famous deeds of their Herculean and Machiavellian ancestors, and introduced to the forms of savage polity—political, religious, and social. The ardor and fierce courage of their ancestors were *dramatized* into their souls. They certainly learned by doing. Higgins⁷ says that "Dancing was originally merely religious, intended to assist the memory in retaining the sacred learning which originated previous to the invention of letters. Indeed, I believe that there were no parts of the rites and ceremonies of antiquity which were not adopted with a view to keep in recollection the ancient learning before letters were known." "In the religious rites of a people I should expect to find the earliest of their habits and customs." Hence, according to Bourke, the Zuñi dance may be interpreted as a dramatic pictograph of some half-forgotten episode in tribal history. As superstitions are often but fossilized relics (*Ueberbleibsal, Aber-glaube*, superfluous belief) of earlier religious forms, so many songs and dances, charms and rites are abbreviated, socialized remains of ancestral adult political and religious practices. Forms of politeness and courtesy are also to be reckoned in this class, being often survivals of an early *courtly* life.⁸

Many illustrations of this law of social recapitulation may be found in the philological derivation of many words and phrases used metaphorically to-day. To take an instance:

⁶ Trumbull, *The blood covenant*

⁷ Quoted by Bourke, *Scatalogic rites*, p. 26

⁸ Herbert Spencer, *Illustrations of universal progress*, "Manners and fashions."

"The yoke of matrimony" possessed a slightly different meaning at the time of its origin from that which it has come to possess. In primitive agriculture man was his own beast of burden. Horses were in all probability used at first for purposes of food. They were only gradually utilized as beasts of burden.⁹ Men and women, not cattle, drew the plow. Hence the expression *con-jux*, yoke-fellow, or wife. Hence *con-jugium*, sharing the yoke, *i. e.*, marriage. The yoke is to be taken in a quite literal sense. A reminiscence of the common yoke of primitive times is preserved in the Roman marriage customs. After the nuptials the wife installs herself in the husband's house with this formula: *ubi tu Gaius, ego ibi Gaia, i. e.*, "Where thou plowest, I plow with thee." According to the Greek lexicographers γαῖος means βοῦς ἐργαστήης, the ox. Tacitus (*Germania*, chap. xviii) mentions *uncti boves* as a symbol that the wife is *laborum socia*. The German phrase, *Was treibst du?* in a similar manner goes back to the pastoral life of primitive times.¹⁰ So also the word *pecunia*, money, from *pecus*, cattle, and others.

Darwin¹¹ believes that man's musical capacity has not been developed from the tones used in impassioned speech, but that it is developed at an earlier stage, when the animals of the lower series possessed the instinctive power of producing musical notes and rhythms. We must, therefore, suppose that the rhythms and cadences of oratory are derived from previously developed musical powers. We can thus understand how it is that music, dancing, song, and poetry are such very ancient arts.¹² After applying the principles of sexual selection to this particular phase of the subject Darwin affirms that "The impassioned orator, bard, or musician, when with his varied tones and cadences he excites the strongest emotions in his hearers, little suspects that he uses the same means by which his half-human ancestors long ago aroused each other's ardent passions, during their courtship and rivalry." It is a well-known fact that poets and orators in their loftiest moods revert to language

⁹ Taylor, *The origin of the Aryans*

¹⁰ Ihering, *Evolution of the Aryan*, p. 391, 392

¹¹ Darwin, *Descent of man*, p. 572

¹² *Ib.* p. 573

and modes of thought and expression which have no meaning apart from a primitive, animistic mode of viewing the world.

Poetry is said by Darwin¹³ to be the offspring of song. This seems to be no truer than the statements found in a large number of books on rhetoric to the effect that prose is the proper speech of man and that poetry is artificial. They also assert that poetry is a late product, that prose came naturally first in the development of the race. The reverse of these statements is nearer the truth of the matter. The denial may be based on historical anthropology and on psychology. A close study of the anthropomorphic nature of man, so necessary in poetry, will show that anthropomorphism is a tendency referring not to the realm of the gods alone, but embracing the whole world of human thought and feeling. It is the fundamental nature of the human mind. It has no other method of working than by reading into the world about it, its own ideas, feelings, and willings. Its chief method or instrument is that of association of ideas. In the progress of human thought, therefore, we may expect anthropomorphism at its crudest in the beginning and that scientific prose is its latest development. And since anthropomorphism is of the very nature of the human mind so poetry seems, especially in the beginning, the natural speech of man and prose a highly artificial and lately evolved product.¹⁴ Poetry is, therefore, another illustration of the law of social recapitulation. A prosaic, matter-of-fact early education deprives the child of that elastic spring of the imagination so necessary in every walk of life. The child needs the social stimuli of its early adult ancestors.

When we are led to investigate the first foundation of many of our games and popular customs we are forced to admit that, however widely they may have deviated from their original design and meaning, they are derived from some religious tenets, observances, or ceremonies. Like other things in nature these early rites and customs have been subject to the rigid scrutiny of the law of natural selection, and, consequently, we must say that if they have survived, and that, too, almost

¹³ Darwin, *Descent of man*, p. 565

¹⁴ Biese, *Philosophie des metaphysischen*, (1893)

universally, they must have been useful adaptations to their respective environments. The environment has, however, to some extent, changed, and yet not in all particulars. Instead of an environment of adults most seriously occupied in the struggle for a bare existence, the environment has changed to that of children and adults in their moods of play and relaxation. To the savage there is an imperative need in his social life of supplying the comparative absence of laws and legal sanctions by other laws and sanctions in which gods and spirits, good and bad, act as constables, rulers, and administrators. As someone has said, religion was to him a life and fire insurance company. It was, however, much more. It was to him a profound system of society in which he lived, and without which early society would probably have foundered in the chaotic Walpurgis-night of unregulated desires and impulses. It is so with the uneducated to-day, to a large extent. These rites, customs, beliefs of adult, ancestral experiences, in the very modified form of plays, games, myths, and tales, fulfill a function in the social life and world of the child of to-day. The child and the savage appear to possess similar potentialities and tendencies, and hence the same or similar social stimuli are suitable and useful in both cases.

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IV

A FRESHMAN AT NINETEEN

The average age of the Harvard Freshman is almost nineteen, of the Harvard Senior, at graduation, about twenty-three. Statistics procurable from other institutions do not diminish these averages. The Yale Freshman, as one would expect, is of about the same age as his Harvard brother; the Princeton Freshman perhaps a trifle younger; while the Ann Arbor Freshman, perhaps the fairest representative of the Western college, averages nineteen and a half. Assuming the closest possible connections, the average Harvard man will leave the law school at twenty-six; the medical school at twenty-seven. It would be safe to say, therefore, that few men, enjoying our best academic and professional training, are self-supporting before twenty-eight. Such a condition practically prohibits thoroughgoing preparation for a professional career. Despite the efforts now making on the part of the medical schools to raise their standard by lengthening the course of study to four years, the medical student will continue to be a crude and untrained youth, unfit to pursue in really scientific fashion the studies now recognized as indispensable to a thoro knowledge of medicine, as long as the continued existence of our present elementary- and secondary-school system makes it almost impossible for anyone to complete a fair collegiate education until he has passed the first years of manhood.

After a far more thoro and solid course of training than our own, the young German lawyer finds himself, at twenty-three, the young German doctor at twenty-four, at the threshold of practical life. Granting that in point of quality there is no choice between the two products, the German boy has actually saved the entire period which the American spends at college. But, as a matter of fact, no one maintains that there is no difference in quality; so that the advantage lies with the foreigner, even more strongly than the figures alone indicate.

Many suggestions have been made toward remedying this deplorable condition of things: lowering of matriculation requirements, abolition of the present Senior year, and the overlapping of professional and collegiate courses. These suggestions practically admit that the American boy, despite his alleged superiority to the foreign boy in quickness and inventiveness, is inferior to him in actual intellectual capacity. We are in possession of no data by which such a question can be determined. I, for one, do not believe that as yet the American boy has had an even chance. My experience has, in fact, led me to precisely the opposite conclusion; namely, that retaining the present matriculation requirements of the best American colleges, the American boy whose training has been efficiently conducted can enter college at seventeen, and that in some respects these requirements may be decidedly extended without raising the age limit. If now by improving the quality of elementary and secondary training, the Freshman average can be reduced to seventeen, at the same time that the college itself is enabled, by the increased efficiency of preparatory work, to reduce its required course to three years, the possession of a college education can begin to be insisted on as an indispensable requisite to the highest professional training; until that is brought about, we occupy the peculiar attitude of providing higher education which most men engaged in professional pursuits must do without, because they have not time for it. College education, instead of being an indispensable stage in professional education, continues to be, what it now largely is, a semi-ornamental addition thereto. The trouble, to my thinking, lies mainly neither in the colleges nor in the boys, but in the long stretch of years in which, from the elementary school thru the high or preparatory school, the child's energies are frittered away on verbal technicalities, while the rigid grasp of the class system puts a premium on uncomplaining submission to routine. A brief analysis will show the inadequacy of this system as a basis for higher education and may also suggest the nature of the remedy.

The graded school dates back to a time when the demand for educational extension was very strong, the demand for

educational intension very weak; when it was considered immeasurably important that all should understand the three R's, and when anything more than this was an exception which might be left to provide for itself. Despite the fact that what was the exception tends now to become the rule, the general framework of the system remains unaltered; criticism expends itself for the most part on the curriculum. The school consists essentially of rigidly articulated classes, forming a sort of human staircase. A regular curriculum is marked out to be completed by all, within a predetermined period, at the close of which the entire lump, leavened or unleavened, is handed bodily to another teacher, to whom the children are entirely strange, and with whom they remain for a similar term, the work of which has been prearranged in the same ironclad fashion. The class carries those that have done well and those that have just succeeded in keeping afloat, and identical tasks are imposed upon all pupils, of all varieties of capacity and industry. Large classes, a fixed schedule, annual change of teachers—these are the earmarks of the graded school. Is it possible that energetic development of capacity, wise nurture of doubtful power, economical employment of the individual child's time and nervous force, can be secured under these conditions? Advocates of the system do not defend it on its merits; they seek cover under pretense of its inevitability. Perhaps it is true that with the existing resources in the way of money and teachers, no other plan is immediately feasible; but private schools and endowed academies may at least cease to conform to the public-school model and may experimentally seek to determine whether a more elastic and economic system is not practicable. If found, such a method would certainly in time prove the solvent force to break up the inflexibly rigid public school; assuredly we have not yet reached the limit of State expenditure in primary and secondary education.

The graded school contemplates an imaginary average child that does not exist. His nearest living relative belongs to the "least fit." It cannot use, hence it cannot effectively encourage unusual energy, brilliancy, originality. Its ideal is the patient, faithful, commonplace boy, and a child of uncommon

vivacity, physical or intellectual, is like sand in its joints. At the close of its slow, unillumined march, the American boy knocks at nineteen or later for admission at college doors, with his little Latin and less Greek, a bungler in the use of his native tongue, strangely incapable of close observation or thought, and generally without marked intellectual interests in any direction.

Uniformity is its initial absurdity; whereas a democracy, instead of requiring educational leveling, is the very form of society in which the greatest individual diversity should be encouraged, subject always, of course, to fundamental ethical restraint. The richness of our civilization depends on our capacity for developing and utilizing the special turns and aptitudes with which genius comes gifted; and under general social conditions which bear strongly toward mental and moral sameness, intellectual inequality must be prized and sought, if democracy is to be lifted above the dead level of mediocrity.

In the very first place, then, the class system cannot handle unusual endowments; it wastes them. A child, it is true, may occasionally skip a grade, tho there are considerable practical difficulties in the way of this; but even then, he can do only what the "least fit" can do. His exceptional native advantages for the pursuit, say, of language or mathematics, history or literature, go for naught. The "least fit" cannot do these things at that age; neither then may he. The "least fit" must take his language lessons, his grammar, his arithmetic, and no more, in this way or that; so then, must he. The "least fit" can finish this attenuated curriculum in thirteen years; his more capable brother may be allowed, near the start, to save a year; later, even that is almost impossible. Fortunate youth if, outside of school, some proper employment for his unrequired abilities may be found; in most cases, however, study loses all its zest, and interest in intellectual pursuits is permanently destroyed.

The system costs even more dearly the gifted, but less sturdy. These it quickly conforms to its ideal pattern of mediocrity. Its mechanical and unyielding routine makes, for the most part, short work of the delicate tints and hues of

child nature. They are very soon overlaid with chalk-dust, and wiped away with the universal eraser. Only the irrepressible, indifferent genius with a strong tincture of heedless mischief comes out of the ordeal unreduced—except in his “average,” which has suffered seriously from “bad deportment.”

I have in mind a boy of still another type whom, once and for all, the class system wrecks. He takes hold of a new idea very slowly, too slowly for the class pace; but once fairly begun he develops rapidly, much too rapidly for this same pace. For example, I have lately read Cæsar with such a boy. Nothing could have been slower than his start, tho he had been very patiently prepared for it; everything was hard for him—the words, the ideas, the style. We read a few paragraphs, sentence by sentence; then went back and did them all over, repeating this process until he felt at home. After that he could be left to his own devices; he quickened his pace daily, overtaking and passing boys who in the beginning had been sorry for him. What can the class system do for such? They “fail” at the very jump; they never take hold at all, tho their future contains unknown possibilities.

And, finally, the class system does nothing even for the stupid boy. For him it maintains its impoverished curriculum; it is he that makes the enrichment of the curriculum beyond a limited point impossible. Yet in the end it fails with him, too. It cannot rouse him from lethargy. Stupidity, like genius, is a varied thing. It has its points of attack—likewise its points of invulnerability. The class system allows no discrimination between them; it can give no opportunity to explore, to experiment. After presenting a course of study devoid of interest, excitement, or difficulty, but “within reach of the ordinary boy,” the amazed teacher finds that it is just the ordinary boy that, in very truth, remains most entirely outside *its* reach. For the stupid boy, whose supposed needs and capacity have dictated its general method, the class system ends by doing practically nothing at all.

The objections to the class system are, however, not limited to its slowness and inflexibility; its fundamental purpose has been superseded. It did not in its origin, it cannot now, even

remotely, contemplate the culture of the individual child, the only rational end of education, as now conceived. It aimed at the diffusion of the mere tools of knowledge—reading, writing, arithmetic, geography. Some rare, indispensable virtue was supposed to reside in these humble subjects; no man could be a good citizen without them; with them, any man was fairly equipped for life. Such was the gospel of common-school education. The last half century has exploded many optimistic delusions, among them the sovereign sufficiency of common-school education, which has been relegated to the limbo where the millennial virtues of universal suffrage and free trade sleep in “innocuous desuetude.”

In order, then, to embody the modern ideal of complete individual development, the solution of educational difficulties must, I think, be a radical one—nothing less than the abolition of the impenetrable class phalanx. I propose to substitute for the human staircase small groups, say of twelve children, taught individually by a single teacher for many consecutive years. The practice of ignorant or blind experimentation thus ceases at once; the mental lock-step is broken; every child makes its own pace; a curriculum is made for each pupil, based both as to subject and method on its own needs and nature, so as to utilize its native advantages, strengthening its weak points, developing its strong ones. The teacher establishes intimate relations with his pupils; he can take time to study and learn them; and the whole course of this work is determined by his interpretation of this knowledge in the light of his wider experience. Such teaching may, at any rate, be thoro and intelligent, as the class method cannot possibly be. The teacher can help the child to make out the line of least resistance, can discover the point where its unawakened interest may be roused; where, forgetting the disgust which school routine ordinarily inspires, the young mind may delight to bring all its unused energy to bear. Not only does the child learn more; he sees some use for himself. He is not left to wander in the wilderness of self-ignorance from which the American boy's sole refuge is “some business where he can make money.” What severer strain can we impose upon the

character of a young man than to let him drift into life absolutely without spiritual or intellectual activity along any line, anxious above all to escape from the boredom in which for twenty years his elders have, for the most part blindly, restrained him, without once seeking or providing for his energies the uses to which from birth and circumstances they were most surely adapted?

The demand which the individual method makes upon the teacher is evidently tremendous; no precise plan of work is predetermined, tho, as a matter of fact, it will appear that, with proper tact and adaptability, most children can successfully and delightedly learn whatever they need to know. In the main each child recites separately; combinations of children vary in different subjects and are constantly subject to readjustment; the exercise of special insight and judgment on the teacher's part is thus steadily required. The character of the teaching body and its remuneration must therefore rise to increased responsibility and a far larger proportion of highly trained men and women be drawn into the field of primary and secondary school work.

Seven years ago, influenced by these considerations, I determined to find out what could be done with ordinary boys and the usual subjects, if class distinctions were entirely abolished. My experiment began with eight boys, of various degrees of ability, and almost the same age. I proposed to discover, in the first place, whether without changing the common curriculum, I could not arouse greater enthusiasm and develop greater mental and moral force than I had ever been able to secure in a classroom. The favorable result may be set down to reduced numbers; but, in point of fact, as soon as I began to feel the ground firm under my feet, I permitted the number to increase. Simultaneously I introduced other features; for example, for children under fourteen I abolished study at home. They were expected to prepare their work at school, to ask my assistance, when it was needed. The advantages of this are obvious. I saw the source of every difficulty, learned the qualities and habits of every mind, and was thus enabled to adjust subjects and tasks closely to the needs of each indi-

vidual. I am convinced that, in large measure, home work on the part of young children is responsible for the helplessness of both pupil and teacher. The former, unable to help himself, relies on parents or brothers and sisters; the latter never knows what is the child's work and what not; but the class system cannot dispense with home work. A considerable part of the common course of study was soon dropped. I cut down enormously the time given to grammar, abolished much of the arithmetic (sections like partial payments, etc.), began German as soon as possible,—at six, when fortunate enough to catch a child so early,—French a year or two later, Latin at ten or eleven, algebra the next year, did away with English “readers” wholly, substituting for them real literature, based upon which was a daily written composition. At first sight this may look like pressure; it was just the reverse. These children worked only from 8.30 to 1, with a recess of thirty minutes at 10.45. Those under fourteen did no home work at all. Yet their achievement was enormously greater than that of children of the same age in the graded schools, and at far less nervous cost. Tho the greatest diversity, in point of aptness for various studies was at once disclosed, I discovered that practically all children could be interested in and taught the subjects required for college admission; I found, too, that even where special interest was not aroused, the child's own will could be very successfully appealed to. In other words, children obeyed with an alacrity I had not seen before. Their own consciousness of aptitude along one line or another gave them a degree of self-confidence that made an appeal to their intellectual and moral pride highly effective. I have very, very rarely seen a boy who, when this relationship between us was once established, when his own dignity was once aroused, would say “I can't.” And the same was true of boys who, from one cause or another, had never taken kindly to school life. I came into frequent contact with boys who had “failed”—some of them from native stupidity, others from mere lack of application. Tho the chances of reclaiming a boy to study diminish rapidly after seventeen, I am convinced that even at and after this age, a tactful teacher can frequently

succeed with those whom the helplessness of the class system has failed to stir or to subdue; and to this organic helplessness I attribute almost wholly the "failures"—those who actually fall below the minimum "average," as well as the far larger class who "pass" without in reality caring about school at all, or perhaps even positively disliking it.

We have missed none of the supposed advantages of the classroom. Rivalry and emulation were increased, as far as I wished, by judiciously "speeding" each individual. (In fact, I perceived that the class system makes rivalry almost impossible, since it can allow it so little scope.) Occasionally I made combinations of capable, but listless boys, with those eagerly pushing ahead, which proved exceedingly valuable. I found thus, that well-endowed boys could master the highest college requirements very readily at sixteen; that almost without exception it could be done at seventeen. Very few of the boys who did this had come to me under twelve, their previous years having been in most cases almost wasted in the usual flabby occupations of public or private schools. I think it certain, therefore, that children, beginning at seven, could without pressure and without effort, working in the way I have described, accomplish more than the Harvard requirements by seventeen, provided that not more than two or three teachers had divided this period.

But there are other consequences, following the abolition of the class system, that are perhaps not less important than the saving of time. With the class system perishes also the system of morality springing from it; the practically unavoidable spirit of antagonism, which makes the teacher a fair mark for the wit and ingenuity of his pupils; the false method of estimating merit by averages, which puts a premium on small shrewdness, superficial readiness, and plausibility, and permits a child to enjoy a clear conscience, regardless of his actual effort, provided only his good marks outweigh his bad ones. In its place there arises a real intimacy between teacher and pupil, which deepens with their years of friendly intercourse. They become workers together; a close personal bond connects them. Punishments and penalties, like rewards and premiums,

drop away unnoticed. Instead of coercion or inducement from the outside, the latent loyalty and enthusiasm of child character are awakened. Teachers labor ordinarily under the child's distrust. A child has not time to understand one teacher before he gets another. And, indeed, often enough, the sincerest teacher counsels in utter ignorance of the problem before him; the child feels the sermon to be hollow mockery. But the intercourse of years provides a substantial basis for helpfulness. The teacher's work becomes something more than drilling an unresponsive mind in fractions and parsing. He becomes one of the main influences in molding its ambition and character, which indeed powerfully react on each other.

And here, indeed, lies the main advantage of individual instruction, in that it allows an effort, adapted to both the mental and moral nature of the child. The prevailing class method restricts, prohibits, forbids. But it does not touch the springs of action. Instead of flexibility of intelligence, for which alone there is hope, in these days of swift change in social and economic conditions, it offers diffused knowledge of the A B C; instead of independence and strength of character, it offers the uncertain reliance of good conduct enforced by pain and penalty. It cannot do otherwise. How shall the personality of the teacher really penetrate the class-wall? In a few months the "class" will be whirled on to another "room," and the teacher be confronted with a new set of enigmas. All he can do meanwhile is to repress, in the sure knowledge that in the playground untutored impulse will regain full freedom. But—abolish the "staircase," let the teacher start with a dozen boys with whom he will spend many years. Now it is worth his while to study them; he will become their associate and friend. Can he not hope to influence their tastes, their habits, their ambitions? He is working at the very sources of character, during all these years, and, besides, these boys, knowing what they can do, will go to Cambridge at sixteen or seventeen, instead of nineteen.

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V

THE SUPERINTENDENT AND THE BOARD OF EDUCATION ¹

It is necessary to begin this discussion by defining certain terms which have an important legal as well as educational bearing on the subject under consideration, and for the additional reason that clear conceptions may be reached in regard to the functions and duties of boards of education and of those whom boards employ.

Under the school law or charter creating a board of education, it is self-evident that the corporation itself is an artificial, intangible being, existing only in contemplation of law, and since all personal rights die with the person upon whom those rights are bestowed, it has been found necessary and convenient, for the advantage of the public thru its representatives, that particular rights, duties, and privileges should be continued by constituting artificial persons who may maintain perpetual succession. These artificial persons are designated as "bodies politic," "bodies corporate," or "corporations"—that may sue, or be sued, plead or be impleaded, in any court of law or equity in the United States. The object of a corporation is to bestow the character and properties of individuality on a collective and changing body of men. A corporation is clearly then a creature of law, and its leading function is governmental—consisting of legislative, quasi-legislative, administrative, and executive. A corporation, such as a board of education, has power and authority cast upon it by law, under the action of the inhabitants of a specified locality, to exercise in local matters, subordinate to the jurisdiction of the State, particular limited functions of self-government—legislative, supervisory, or directive, and frequently judicial, and such other collateral duties as may be deemed necessary or desirable for attaining the object for which the corporation exists.

¹ The writer has in mind the needs of smaller cities and of towns.

Corporations vary, owing to the conditions and limitations of the statutes under which they are created and the objects they are designed to promote.

The law of corporations in general is that the corporation must act within the sphere of its authority, and it will not be held answerable to the individual for ill consequences of its mistakes, if committed to the discretion of the members of the corporation, however gross they may be in matters strictly legislative or judicial. In its executive and ministerial actions, as distinguished from the acts of officers clothed with independent power, a corporation is responsible for its trespasses and other infractions of individual rights, or for its negligence.

For the misdoing of its regularly appointed agents, including those officers who act under its positive and direct commands, it is responsible; but not, strictly speaking, for actions which the agent does outside of the sphere of his legitimate authority.

In Missouri a school board is a corporate body, and it intrusts nearly all its work to agents who exercise a large measure of discretionary authority, and in such a manner as each agent deems best. While in the discharge of such duties as are clearly prescribed, and acting strictly within the sphere of instruction, the employee will not be held responsible for the ill consequences of a careful and honest exercise of discretionary authority. But while legislatures may create, modify, or destroy certain corporations by legislating them out of existence, yet their contracts, as such, nevertheless remain in full force and effect. It frequently happens that by an act of the legislature a school board is abolished and a new one created instead, but the teachers employed by the non-existent board discharge their duties, as if nothing had occurred, for the period of the appointment. This rests upon the theory that a necessary part of the machinery of government cannot be absolutely destroyed, unless something else is provided to continue its function. That is, such a corporation, in some form, has a perpetual existence. This kind of delegated power survives all changes in government, and it is necessary in order to protect the people from intolerable burdens. Yet no legis-

lature can bind the people of a State forever. A future legislature has the same power to repeal a law that a former one had to enact it when vested rights are not interfered with. While a legislature may therefore create, modify, or extend the authority, or even destroy a corporation, no law can be passed impairing the obligation of a contract when once legally entered into. Now a school board, created as it is under the law of the State, is a changing body; oftentimes its members are preoccupied with other duties; therefore it stands to reason that the agent employed by the board to look after, direct, and carry forward special lines of work, should occupy the position of special and confidential adviser of the board in all its relations of whatever character pertaining to his duties. The superintendent is pre-eminently such an agent, duly authorized and fully empowered to execute the will of the board.

Should the superintendent or other employee misrepresent, or knowingly misinform, the board on any particular point, it is fraud; if honestly done, it is a mistake, and if on account of weakness of intellect alone, it is gross ignorance. Fraud and deceit, by him who is trusted as a confidential agent, are regarded as the most odious things in law.

It should be borne in mind that the members of a board of education are elected for a short term of office; they serve without pay, and they are entitled to expert testimony from those whom they employ and to whom the interest of the general management of the schools is intrusted.

The central power is vested in a board of education. Its chief function is to put the schools into operation and to provide all the means and agencies for the successful accomplishment of the work. Its organization implies the authority to make all the necessary provision and to employ agents to put all its machinery into action. The board, in compliance with the statutes under which it operates, represents the legislative as well as the judicial department of the system, and it delegates certain powers to the superintendent, principals, and teachers, which said employees can enforce with energy, promptness, and firmness of purpose. Responsibility is distributed and rests directly on all employees; on the superin-

tendent in proportion to his sphere of action, and on various special teachers or supervisors, principals, teachers, and employees. Quick action can be secured when necessary in all departments of the system.

For the sake of clearness, the relation between the superintendent and the board may be grouped under the following heads:

1. Administrative. 2. Financial. 3. Educational; divided somewhat after the manner of work the board is called upon to perform.

Administrative—This question assumes that between the board of education and the superintendent a perfect understanding in regard to the management of the schools exists, and that the sole purpose of both is to bring the schools to the very highest degree of efficiency with the agencies at their command. All issues, so often unnecessarily or injudiciously raised, concerning the prerogatives of the board, or the delegated rights of the superintendent, are also excluded from this discussion, because, in the writer's opinion, if both parties are desirous of acting uprightly, no such conflict can possibly arise. That one should happen to be placed temporarily in charge of a system of schools whose motives are not in harmony with honest, faithful labor and the improvement of the schools over which he exercises authority, lies within the range of a narrow probability; or that a person may be elected a member of a school board whose motives are along the line of personal aggrandizement, may occasionally happen; yet the writer assumes that both the board and the superintendent are in the positions they occupy, because they are qualified to discharge the duties devolving upon them individually and collectively. It is assumed, furthermore, that the school board is organized for the purpose of transacting the business which comes before it in a businesslike manner, and not for the purpose of making speeches before an audience, or to be reported to an admiring constituency thru the morning papers. There is no more necessity for a member of a school board to make speeches in the transaction of routine business than there is for a bank director, or railroad manager, to arise and deliver himself dur-

ing a consultation on purely business matters. Neither should the superintendent become intoxicated with the sonorous qualities of his own voice, and keep it ringing in dulcet strains in his district.

Financial—The superintendent is the executive officer and counselor of the board in all matters pertaining to the monetary affairs of the school district. He should know what expenditures will be needed, the amount of taxes to be levied, the purchasing of sites and erection of schoolhouses, the appliances needed for teaching purposes, the schoolroom supplies, teachers' salaries, the limit to which taxation may be carried with safety, and beyond which it must not be pushed. He must stand as a check to prevent the board from making present, unnecessary expenditures, or contracting obligations which impoverish, but in no wise enrich the schools. The writer has no sympathy with that policy which, under a misapprehension of facts, induces school boards to spend all the money possible, under the plea that the more spent for education the better. Money may be thrown away or wasted on schools as in any other public or private enterprise. Let money be judiciously expended is the only safe and satisfactory course to pursue in order to avoid financial embarrassment and reactionary movements.

A careful, prudent superintendent should know the temper and sentiment of the people among whom he lives, and he should know all the burdens that fall upon his community in regard to State, county, and city taxes, as well as the special taxes for certain necessary improvements. He must be familiar with the tax-paying ability of the people, and whether they, in general, are prosperous and can procure money easily, or are sorely pressed to get money at all with which to meet their obligations. Embarrassments have to be reckoned with as much or more than temporary prosperity. I emphasize the financial side because it is the one that is usually neglected by most superintendents. School boards, so far as my observation extends, are moreover anxious and willing to do what they believe to be for the welfare of the community in which they reside, and it is here, at this point, that a prudent superin-

tendent can be of most service in advising his board. He has in mind a complete map of the school district, and he knows in what particular localities the school attendance presses with the greatest force, and he should inform his board of all the facts pertaining to the additions to be made to houses already erected, or the locations of new buildings, without the intervention of local committees which too frequently have some real estate speculation just back of the curtain.

The evils springing from financial recklessness in expenditures, and the crowding of the ward school course of study with all things imaginable or conceivable, are two of the chief sources of dissatisfaction and discontent with city school systems in many sections of the country. In regard to the financial policy to be pursued and the vast interests at stake, there should be the most cordial co-operation between the board and the superintendent. The superintendent is practically the determining factor in advising what should be done as well as what should be avoided. Whatever is agreed upon should be taken as the decision of the board when once recorded, and in no instance should this be departed from unless by order of the board. Unity of action is of the most vital importance. If by word or action the board and superintendent antagonize each other, it will only be a short time till one or the other must yield, or the disagreement will infect and undermine the entire system.

The superintendent is supposed to be familiar with the best schoolhouses in the country, and to be an expert, in part at least, as to the construction, seating, heating, lighting, and ventilating of schoolrooms. He should advise the board as to the best and most convenient arrangements and appliances that he has seen or knows of in other cities as well as the cost thereof. Unless he can direct the board in such matters, they may secure the services of an architect whose knowledge is out of date, or never was up to date, and whose skill is away below par. Under such guidance buildings may be erected that have not a single redeeming feature. Very often just where the board most needs advice and guidance it is not to be found. Only a few men not architects can read the plans and specifi-

cations of a building and understand them. The superintendent should be in close consultation with the architect while he prepares the plans and specifications, to insure the best and most convenient schoolhouses.

As to the supplies for the schoolroom, such as blackboards, maps, charts, books, and so forth, there should be perfect unity of action between the board and the superintendent. If he is the eye of the board as well as its executive officer, he should be familiar with what is needed, the qualities of the material, and how much is required; or should a change in text-books be desirable, he is in duty bound to keep the board informed as to the best in the market.

Principals and teachers, too, become importunate at times. Each wants the earth. They plead with the members of the board, and the members hesitate. At this point it is the duty of the superintendent to plant himself firmly between those who want and those who can, in part, supply wants. There are persons so constituted that they want everything and more, too, while a minority never ask except for what is absolutely necessary. This is clearly traceable to the two different conceptions persons living and working side by side may have about the legitimate use of public money. The one is lavish and the other believes in using public money with as much prudence as he would his own. Thus the superintendent frequently relieves the board from embarrassing itself. When a board steps aside once, all other needy ones quote the precedent as a law.

Educational—The course of study has already been mentioned. It is usually prescribed, in part, by legislative enactment, at least so far as essential branches are concerned, and this is within the legitimate sphere of the State acting as the agent or instrument of the collective will of the citizens. The State in its legislative capacity may be regarded as the will of the people embodied in law, and this will is the supreme power, or the highest authority residing in the State for carrying on a system of schools. The State, exercising its functions as a sovereign power, usually specifies also the minimum number of branches to be taught, leaving the additional ones to each local board.

The superintendent is supposed to keep himself posted in every respect concerning courses of study and lines of management, and to know what has been tried in various cities and towns of this and other countries. Unless he is thus informed and communicates his knowledge to the board, it may undertake experiments that were exploded a score of years ago, so that one of the most important species of work the superintendent can do is to save the board from itself; because boards are often composed of members who are actively and persistently engaged in other interests lying in widely different fields, and who are liable to commit mistakes under a misapprehension of all the facts. As an illustration, cities are loading up and unloading their courses of study every year. To draw safe conclusions in such matters the superintendent should understand all the conditions under which an experiment was tried. *Apropos* is the lightening of many courses of study now going on in some of the city schools of this country at present. However, the real danger lies in the fact that the pendulum may swing too far. A course of study must always be somewhat variable, owing to the locality and pursuits in which the people are actively engaged, but I take it that what are known as the fundamental branches will remain practically the same, because they enter most largely into the daily life of nearly the entire mass of citizens. They seem to be fundamental as well as vital.

The superintendent's opportunities to know what is being done, or has been done, in the several States of the Union are ample for all purposes. Annually, the Commissioner of Education publishes the largest and most complete report issued by any government in the world. It contains condensed reports from all the civilized nations of the globe, and what the leading educators the world over think upon the different subjects and methods of instruction. Then, there are the State reports, very valuable documents indeed to anyone who cares to know what each State is doing. In addition to this are the city reports, numbering several hundred annually, and containing the very last experimental information fresh from the schools. These reports are by many educators regarded as

the best educational documents issued for the use of superintendents, principals, and teachers, and particularly for that class of educators who are interested in the new experiments tried each year, and their results. The ripest thought, however, is published annually in the *Proceedings* of the National Educational Association. No superintendent can afford to be ignorant of this treasure house of educational literature, embracing the very widest range of topics. When there are added to these sources of information the educational journals issued weekly, semi-monthly, and monthly, the live superintendent cannot well enter a plea of ignorance of what the educational world has done or is now doing. With all these agencies and opportunities for improvement, I can conceive of no valid excuse, or even any mitigating circumstances, upon which a superintendent could base a claim of not being informed upon even the elementary notions which ought to constitute a part of his mental equipment.

School boards usually give the widest latitude to the superintendent in the performance of his duties. Being on the ground and having a general oversight, he is supposed to be familiar with the details of all kinds of school work, and is capable of giving advice as an expert to the board, principals, and teachers. He is, or ought to be, a good judge of school work and of teachers; able to strengthen weak teachers, and to guide rightly the more impulsive ones; he should be feet to the lame and eyes to the blind. As an expert he should know, whenever the exigencies of the situation demand it, when to go outside to get a good teacher to take a delicate and difficult position. It was on this very same principle that Napoleon chose his field-m Marshals—the most wonderful combination of military talent the world ever beheld. The superintendent must keep the board informed, or be ready to give the desired information concerning the peculiarities of each school district, and of every teacher in it, not only of the teaching force, but the temper and disposition of the patrons. Strange as it may seem, yet is true, there are perhaps not one-fourth of the principals of a school system who would succeed except in certain districts in the city in which they live. There are

principals who are not adapted to certain locations, and only a few persons can be found in any system who can fit themselves well into every school district, yet this is one of the very last things that a majority of principals and teachers do learn, but if there is that full understanding between the board and superintendent, a principal whose limitations are well known will never be transferred to a district in which he will be a failure. This is also a very delicate subject to handle in a log-rolling school system, and, small as it may appear, the annual wreckage along this line is amazing. Nor does it end here. Principals and teachers are frequently clamorous for a change, and may importune the members of the board; but, again, the only safe plan is to advise with the board and explain the situation clearly and impartially. Numerous instances have occurred in my experience when teachers had to be transferred because of friction with the principals, and perhaps neither was to blame—incompatibility of temper.

There do come times when the board and the superintendent differ on certain lines of policy to be pursued, and unless an amicable agreement is arrived at, the superintendent should acquiesce or resign. I have no sympathy with that class of malcontents who continually criticise the actions of a school board or a superintendent, but have not the manhood to step down and out, as any gentleman would do who has a single spark of self-respect.

At times a board, or a member of it, wants definite information along a certain line, and the superintendent is the only one who can furnish that information. As the adviser of the board, he ought to furnish the information, and if required, give his reasons for his conclusions.

The superintendent stands between the teaching force and the board, helping the one and counseling the other, and he has a public as well as a personal duty to perform. The board, the superintendent, and the teaching force mold public sentiment largely in a community. Reports, too, oftentimes reach the board that place a teacher in a wrong light, and the superintendent is the only one who can set the matter properly before the board, and he should do so without any mental reservation.

It is human nature for the superintendent to respect some members of the teaching force more highly than others, because he has found them worthy of respect and confidence; but he must, nevertheless, meet out exact justice even to those who are least deserving. A man who carries his whims or personal grievances into his judicial decisions is unworthy of confidence, and cannot retain the respect of his associates.

Another relation which deserves mention in this connection is the disposition manifested by some superintendents to shift all responsibility to the board of education. There are many little matters of petty detail that a board should never be bothered with, and the superintendent who is continually running to the board with such frivolous affairs is sure to lose the respect of his board in a short time. Responsibility should be distributed, and where distributed it should rest heavily on that person who has voluntarily accepted it with all that belongs to it. The shirker is never a safe person to trust. A school system is one of distributed responsibility, and he who is unwilling to bear manfully and willingly his proportionate part has no place in the work. Hence, the understanding between the superintendent and the board, and between the superintendent and principals and teachers, should be clear, definite, and comprehensive.

As a line of policy I have endeavored to settle all matters of detail and of routine without troubling the board of education; but in all cases in which some fundamental principle is involved, or the line of general policy is involved, then I have consulted with the board. Neither do I regard it as a wise measure for the superintendent to usurp any functions that belong to the board. He must, above all things, know how to obey as well as how to execute a law.

One of the superintendent's chief duties is to prevent waste in teaching, and unless he is an educator, instead of a mere schoolmaster, he never can accomplish the task of lifting up a corps of teachers so that they take in a wide horizon and vivify their teaching. From his general knowledge, rich in thought and experience, he should bring fresh to his teachers the best that has been found and applied in those great underly-

ing principles of education, upon which all sound, scientific work rests. It is as much his duty to imbue his board with these principles as it is to stimulate and fill his teachers with energy and intelligent enthusiasm. He creates opportunities for his board and corps of teachers to do their very best work, and in this way he impresses his individuality in every direction.

The superintendent's personality must be an active force, felt in the entire school work along every line, and it must be known and appreciated by the teachers as a body, notwithstanding the fact that there are some who never see anything in its proper perspective. To set the machinery of life in motion in a system of schools is no ordinary work, but this is what the superintendent must do if he keeps up with the movement of life-force as it is manifested in the best kind of work in the schoolroom. He must cause the same ideas to take possession of his school board as he himself is imbued with. He must be an inspiration and a stimulus, and he must exert his influence among the teachers, the pupils, the board of education, and the community.

A figuring superintendent, of a percentage turn of mind, living somewhere east of the 90th meridian, parcels out the daily routine of the superintendent as follows:

(a) Making out directions for each lesson as the class work proceeds in all the branches taught in the schools, 30 per cent.

(b) Examining pupils' written work, 10 per cent.

(c) Visiting schools, 10 per cent.

(d) Conducting teachers' meetings, 5 per cent.

(e) Making written inquiries of teachers regarding the mental characteristics, attainments, deficiencies, aptitudes, aspirations, qualities of character, etc., of every pupil in the school and examining answers, 25 per cent.

(f) Instructing the teachers in the subjects in the course of study and in the history and principles of education (by written questions and directions for investigation), 15 per cent.

(g) Organization work, 5 per cent.

(h) The work of the superintendent should be done thru written communications, directions, and questions addressed to the teacher.

This is a scheme for advisory work, or supervisory, with the teachers and percenting things generally. It shows what the superintendent regarded as essential matters, and how much time should be given to each important subject. Some of the large percentages the author devotes to each subject appear to me to belong in part to the principal of the school who is desirous of bringing up the work in each subject to about the same standard, relatively speaking.

In striking contrast to the outline of duties herein enumerated, it affords me very great pleasure to submit the following extract from the pen of that keen-sighted superintendent, Aaron Gove of Denver, who says:

“While theoretically the city superintendent is but the executive officer of the board of education, practically, wherever his lot is cast, he is the chief power. Boards of education often are composed of members who are actively and persistently engaged in other interests. They are not consulted, and ought not to be consulted, in the detailed management of the schools. It is seldom difficulties occur in the superintendent's life that have their rise in the board of education. The board is but a reflex representation of the people; seldom independent or beyond the influence of public opinion, even when public opinion is rash or unreliable. The lawmakers have remembered this usually in providing for the gradual, not sudden, change in the composition of boards.

“It follows from this that the administration of a given superintendent depends little upon the board of education, but upon the character of the schools on the one side and the opinion of the people on the other. The diplomacy of the superintendent is, as is all diplomacy, a fine art when cultivated to a high degree, and exceedingly helpful to the city and to the schools. Thoughtless observers call diplomacy ‘policy,’ thereby giving it a narrow name, and too often the inference of some sort of crookedness. True diplomacy does never sacrifice principle.

“The superintendent stands as an equalizer of radical opinion on the one side and on the other. An advanced and truly modern course of study, prepared by teachers, may be

assailed, because of failure to comprehend. The superintendent stands encouraging the teachers and explaining to the people."

As an actual fact, I spend from seventy to eighty per cent. of my time in visiting schools, and seeing the work, and in helping the teachers. A course of study outlines the minimum work to be done, and it is the duty of the superintendent and principal to see that it is followed in spirit, if not in form, in each school. The superintendent should be able to give model recitations or to suggest improvements to teachers not only in recitations, but also in methods of study and the manner or scheme of presentation, and to impress with the help of the teachers the aim of each recitation.

From motives of prudence and success, it is of the utmost importance that there should be the most complete and satisfactory understanding between the board of education and the superintendent. Each should trust the other implicitly, and counsel together on all important matters. This should be agreed upon at the beginning. All consultations should be free and frank, so that no misunderstandings could possibly arise concerning any line of action.

An enumeration of the duties conferred on the superintendent by the board, or delegated to him by virtue of his position, are usually as follows:

1. To exercise a general supervision over all the schools of the city; to see that the rules and regulations are uniformly and faithfully observed and executed in all departments, and to devote himself exclusively to the duties of his office.
2. To visit the schools, examine into their progress and condition, the classification of the pupils, note the means by which any defects can be remedied, and the general efficiency of the schools promoted.
3. To keep the board constantly informed in regard to their school system and the systems of other cities, their plans of organization, government, methods of instruction, and such other matters as may assist the board to legislate wisely for the highest interest of the district.

4. To prepare all necessary blanks for the use of teachers and to prescribe rules and regulations for keeping the same.

5. To give prompt attention to all cases of misconduct of pupils, which the principal or teacher and parents cannot settle, and to suggest such remedies as may seem possible and proper.

6. To fill temporary absences or vacancies in the teaching force that may occur between board meetings.

7. To transfer pupils from one school to another; to examine classes, or cause them to be examined, in order to ascertain their standing in certain branches; also to examine teachers, or cause them to be examined.

8. To make reports to the board, and at the close of the year to set forth in an annual report a particular view of the schools in general and to make such recommendations as he may deem advisable.

9. To attend all meetings pertaining to his department, and, at the request of any member, to attend any meeting of a special committee and to advise such committee on any subject submitted for their consideration.

From this enumeration of duties it is evident that the superintendent should be the eye and the heart of the board, and that in all relations, his connection with the board is necessary, vital, and inseparable.

JAMES M. GREENWOOD

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
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VI

RAILWAY GEOGRAPHY

The importance of making a general knowledge of the geographical location of railways a part of the education of pupils of secondary schools is undeniable. In the United States, Canada, and Mexico the need of such knowledge is greater than in other countries because in them the distribution of population and industries has been less dependent on natural geographical features and more dependent on the artificial factor of railway communication. Most of North America has been settled and developed as one section after another has been made accessible by railways; and the future relations of the sections are dependent for their maintenance on the continued existence of the lines that now make them possible. In no other country are railways so essential to the life of society as in the United States, as evidenced by the fact that it contains nearly one-half the mileage of the world. Viewed as means of transportation, railways are artificial rivers, and as such, in many respects, improvements on nature. The mileage of the railways of the United States is more than four times that of its navigable rivers. From a purely practical standpoint, a knowledge of the railways of the United States is more useful to the common man than a knowledge of its rivers, lakes, and bays. Yet railway geography is not taught in the schools. While the pupil is expected to learn that Dover, the capital of Delaware, is on Jones creek, he is not taught what railways connect New York and Chicago. An examination of any geography in current use in elementary schools or high schools will readily show how completely the subject is ignored.

The importance of the subject is generally conceded. Publishers and writers of text-books of geography readily admit that it ought to be taught, but say they can find no place for it either in their text-books or in the curricula of the schools. It

is frequently urged that the subject has no claim to a place in "political" geography, but without going fully into the question, it is hard to say what would be left of the ordinary text-book of political geography if all economic facts were to be excluded from it. Some teachers are in the habit of supplementing their text-book work in geography by distributing among their pupils time-table "folders" for them to study; others make similar use of copies of "railway guides" for the purpose; but there are manifest objections to such plans. If there is no place in a general text-book of geography for the subject, it seems important enough for a separate text-book; but there are also serious objections to that plan, the chief one being that the text-book would be too expensive. The question is not, then, whether railway geography ought to be taught, but rather how it ought to be taught. In suggesting an answer to the question, some general considerations, and then a formal plan, will be presented.

1. *Railway systems must first be studied as units*—Before 1850 railways were regarded almost entirely as local lines. Each State aimed to secure for itself a system of internal improvements consisting of railways, canals, and wagon roads. Moreover, they were intended largely to connect bodies of water or rivers. In Ohio and Indiana, the aim was to connect Lake Erie and the Ohio River; in Illinois, Lake Michigan and the Ohio and Mississippi rivers; in New York, the Hudson River and the Great Lakes. Since 1860, however, the tendency has been to ignore State lines, and the railways have become national or inter-State in character, while the connection of water routes has become a secondary consideration. Another tendency during the same time has been toward the consolidation of competing and connecting lines, resulting in *systems* of railways with their main lines between commercial centers and branch lines "gridironing" the contiguous territory. Broadly speaking, each system has its own strip of territory, just as each river has tributary to it the valley that it drains. What is called by students of railways questions the "territorialization" of railways has been wellnigh accomplished. Consolidation has proceeded so far that about forty-

five systems include about seventy-five per cent. of the railway mileage of the United States. The pupil could not be expected to study the minor lines, but only the large systems; just as he is now expected to study the large bays, lakes, and rivers to the exclusion of inlets, ponds, small rivers, and creeks. Of each system of railways he ought to know the general route of the main lines and branches, the States in which they lie, the principal cities on them (and especially the termini), and the points at which they reach important bodies of water.

2. *After the railway systems have been studied as units, large divisions of the country must be studied with reference to railway systems within them*—Not only must the railway systems be studied with reference to the territory, but the territory also, with reference to the systems. The United States and Canada may not be very exactly divided into large districts on the basis of their railways; a more convenient but less instructive basis would be that of common termini; a few large systems occupy parts of more than one district. There are, however, in North America, seven such districts described roughly as follows:

(a) New England and Southeastern Canada, or the territory east of the Hudson River, Lake Champlain, and the St. Lawrence River.

(b) The North Atlantic, Great Lakes, and Ohio River region, having its western termini at Winnipeg, Chicago, and St. Louis, and its eastern termini at Quebec, Montreal, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Norfolk.

(c) The North and Central Mississippi Valley, north of the Ohio River, including the valley of the lower Missouri on the west and extending to Duluth on the north, and Detroit, Toledo, Cleveland, and Cincinnati on the east, with Chicago for a center.

(d) South Mississippi Valley, Gulf of Mexico, and South Atlantic region, bounded by the Ohio and Potomac rivers on the north, by the Atlantic Ocean on the east, by the Gulf of Mexico on the south, and by the Mississippi River on the west.

(e) The Southwest, from the lower Mississippi and lower Missouri rivers to the Rio Grande.

(f) The West, from the lower Missouri and upper Mississippi rivers to the Pacific Ocean.

(g) Mexico.

Such lessons would be in the nature of reviews for the study of the systems of railways in their relations to one another, the systems having been studied separately in previous lessons. The pupil would be expected to learn from such lessons the several systems in each State, the systems that come in contact at the principal cities, the relative importance to each State and city of its several railways, and the several systems reaching important rivers or bodies of water.

3. *The study may best be pursued separately and with a specially prepared text-book*—If it is true that the railway system must be made the primary unit of study, it is exceedingly difficult to see how the work could be combined with the regular work in geography, in which the unit of study is quite necessarily the State or group of States. The railways, in their later development, have quite generally ignored State lines and have divided the country into strips extending across several States, not into compact parts, like most of the States. Again, when groups of States are studied in the regular work, they are usually so arranged as to comprehend *like* States (making homogeneous groups), such as those bordering on the North Atlantic or South Atlantic, or Gulf of Mexico, or inland States devoted largely to mining industries or some form of agriculture or commerce. The function of railways and most other means of transportation is to unite *unlike* regions, to carry agricultural products from agricultural States to manufacturing States and to carry back manufactured goods; consequently the maps suitable for ordinary work in geography would be absolutely unsuitable for studying railways; the termini of the systems would be more than likely to be found in different maps. As far as the shape of the maps is concerned, those in the ordinary text-book of geography are usually as nearly square as possible; those intended for the study of railway geography would have to be decidedly oblong. The objection would apply as fully to a “commercial” as to a “political” geography.

All the general facts of the railways of North America could be easily taught in twenty lessons, without taxing the energies of either teacher or pupil. Of the twenty lessons, twelve could be on systems of railways (in groups), four on territorial divisions (reviews), three on territorial divisions (in which the systems are not studied in other lessons), and one for a general review.

The study could best be assigned for the term of school directly following the term in which a grammar-school geography has been completed. In addition to teaching new matter, the work would be of value as a review, to some extent, of the work in geography done in the grammar school. In studying the territorial divisions and physical features of the country from a new standpoint, that of transportation and intercommunication, the pupil's knowledge of them would be made more substantial; *e. g.*, he would be impressed with the fact that there is an immense arid region in the United States between the Missouri River and the Pacific coast, when he noticed how few "feeders" the main lines of the railways have in that part of the country; in fact, he could tell quite accurately where the fertile soil of the Missouri Valley ends by observing where the branches of the railways end. The study would be profitable in colleges and universities in connection with lectures on transportation questions, especially in view of the lack of such instruction in preparatory schools.

It is hardly necessary to suggest that it is unwise to substitute "railway guides" and "folders" for proper text-books. Besides being unwieldy and otherwise inconvenient in use, they magnify unduly the importance of some lines to the disparagement of others; and the teacher in most cases is unable to supply a corrective. The subject needs digesting, simplifying, and correlating, an adjustment of its several parts to one another—and that is the proper work of a text-book. In the absence of a text-book it is a waste of time to attempt the use of such substitutes.

In the light of the above considerations, a formal plan of lessons is presented below. Each lesson would have to be accompanied by a map showing the railway studied, its termini

and other principal cities, the States thru which it passes, and the principal rivers and other bodies of water reached or crossed by it. If a lesson covered two or more systems, they would have to be shown in different colors or be otherwise distinguished. In the scheme of lessons set forth below, the heads of the lessons alone are given, except in the case of the fourteenth title, which is accompanied by a map and set of questions for the purpose of illustrating the general plan.

Twenty lessons in railway geography

I Railways of New England and Southeastern Canada:

(1) Intercolonial Railway; (2) Grand Trunk Railway (east of St. Lawrence River); (3) Canadian Pacific Railway (east of St. Lawrence River); (4) Central Vermont Railroad; (5) Fitchburg Railroad; (6) Boston and Maine system; (7) Boston and Albany Railroad; (8) New York and New England Railroad; (9) New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad.

II (1) Grand Trunk Railway; (2) Canadian Pacific Railway (east of Winnipeg and St. Paul).

III New York Central system (including the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad; Rome, Watertown, and Ogdensburg Railroad; West Shore Railroad, Michigan Central Railroad, Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railroad, etc.).

IV (1) The Erie Railroad; (2) Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western Railroad; (3) Philadelphia and Reading system.

V Pennsylvania system.

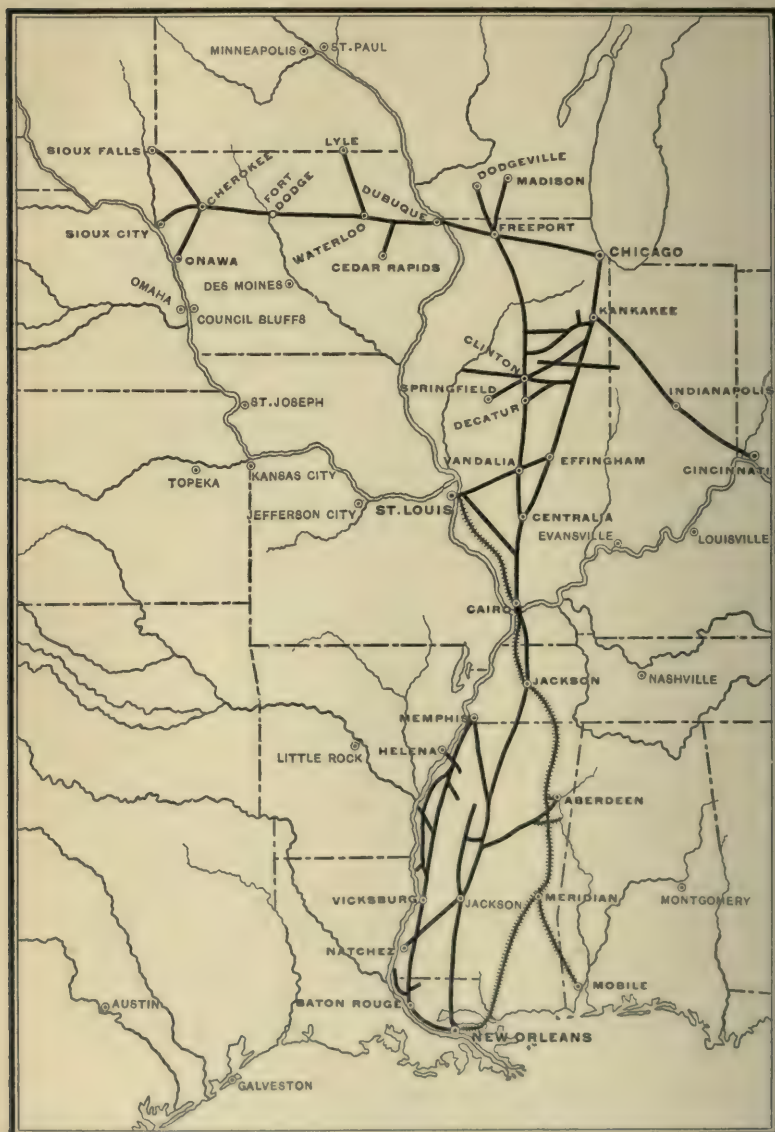
VI (1) Baltimore and Ohio system; (2) Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad.

VII Review: Railways of the North Atlantic, Great Lakes, and Ohio Valley region (the lines included in Lessons II, III, IV, V, and VI).

VIII (1) Wabash Railroad; (2) Toledo, St. Louis, and Kansas City Railroad; (3) Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago, and St. Louis Railway.

IX (1) Northern Pacific system (Wisconsin Central lines); (2) Chicago and Northwestern Railway; (3) Chicago, Mil-

waukee, and St. Paul Railway; (4) Illinois Central Railroad (north of Ohio River); (5) Chicago Great Western Railway.



X (1) Chicago, Rock Island, and Pacific Railway;
(2) Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé Railroad (north of Ok-

lahoma); (3) Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad; (4) Chicago and Alton Railroad.

XI Review: Railways of the North and Central Mississippi Valley (the lines included in Lessons VIII, IX, and X).

XII (1) Norfolk and Western Railroad; (2) Southern Railway; (3) Seaboard Air Line; (4) Central Railroad of Georgia.

XIII (1) Plant system; (2) Florida Central and Peninsular Railroad; (3) Jacksonville, Tampa, and Key West Railway.

XIV (1) Illinois Central Railroad; (2) Mobile and Ohio Railroad.

1. Describe the route of the Illinois Central Railroad. Thru what States does it pass? What is the general direction of its lines? What are the principal cities located on it in South Dakota? in Iowa? in Wisconsin? in Illinois? in Missouri? in Tennessee? in Mississippi? in Louisiana? in Indiana? in Ohio? What large rivers and bodies of water does it reach? At what principal point does it reach the Missouri River? Lake Michigan? the Mississippi? the Ohio River? At what point does it reach tide water?

2. Describe the route of the Mobile and Ohio Railroad. Thru what States does it pass? What is the general direction of its lines? What are the principal cities located on it in Missouri? in Illinois? in Tennessee? in Mississippi? in Louisiana? in Alabama? What large rivers and bodies of water does it reach? At what points does it reach the Mississippi River? the Ohio River? At what points does it reach tide water?

XV (1) Louisville and Nashville Railroad; (2) Nashville, Chattanooga, and St. Louis Railway; (3) Kansas City, Fort Scott, and Memphis Railroad.

XVI Review: Railways of the South Mississippi Valley, Gulf of Mexico, and South Atlantic region (the lines included in Lessons XII, XIII, XIV, and XV).

XVII Railways of the Southwest: (1) Missouri Pacific system and Gould lines in Texas; (2) St. Louis Southwestern system; (3) Missouri, Kansas, and Texas Railway; (4) Atch-

ison, Topeka, and Santa Fé Railroad (south of Iowa); (5) Southern Pacific system (southeast of California).

XVIII Transcontinental Railways: (1) Canadian Pacific Railway; (2) Great Northern Railway; (3) Northern Pacific Railroad; (4) Union Pacific Railway and Central Pacific Railroad; (5) Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé Railroad; (6) Southern Pacific system.

XIX Railways of Mexico: (1) Interoceanic Railway of Mexico; (2) Mexican Central Railway; (3) Mexican National Railroad.

XX General review (covering all the lines in the foregoing lessons and having special reference to large cities—railway centers).

JOHN P. DAVIS

NAMPA, IDAHO

VII

THE MICHIGAN STATE NORMAL COLLEGE

Michigan has long been famous among the States for her devotion to education. In fact, even in the days of her unorganized territorial existence, the foundation for a liberal school system had been laid. But the real plan of the work was not outlined in all its scope nor did actual construction begin until the great tide of immigration from the East during the early 30's swept the State into the Union. The great majority of these early settlers came from New England and brought with them their traditional ideas of education and government; and it was primarily due to their energetic demands that Michigan was so soon and so heartily enlisted in educational work. In 1837 Michigan became a State, in 1841 the State university began its career as a leader of thought and progress. With a good public-school system, crowned by a university, there was still lacking a normal school for the preparation of skillful teachers.

As early as 1836 Hon. John D. Pierce, whose name is synonymous in Michigan with public education, who had then been recently elected superintendent of public instruction and who was the first incumbent of that office, recommended the establishment of a normal school similar to those of Prussia. In subsequent reports he and his successors in office kept agitating the question before the legislature and the people. These determined efforts led, in the year 1849, to the enactment of a law providing for the establishment of a normal school. The first building was dedicated in 1852 and the school formally opened in 1853. This was the first normal school west of the one at Albany, where one was established in 1844. Besides these there were no other normal schools in the country save those in Massachusetts.

The years that have passed since its founding have so far justified the act that to-day Michigan State Normal College

ranks in this country and abroad among the best, and as worthy to stand in its place beside the famous State university.

The early years of institution were years of struggle. The growth in enrollment seems slow in comparison with the rapid strides of later days. That was no doubt in part due to the relatively low standard of teaching required by the State. When we recall how recently education has been recognized as a science, and that Harvard elected its first professor of education as late as 1891, we cannot be surprised that the rank and file in a distant western State, as Michigan was in those days, did not at once place the true value upon sound professional instruction. The school had to make a place for itself not only among the people but even among teachers, for they too were slow to see the need of professional training. Up to 1870 the enrollment was but 231, and ten years later it had increased to but 298. The next decade, however, marked a new era, a dawning recognition of the school's value, the enrollment in 1890 reaching 909 and the following year passing the thousand mark.

It is the purpose of this article to give some of the reasons that have contributed to the success and high rank of this institution, and to sketch briefly some of its salient points and characteristic features.

Among the reasons for its success may be mentioned the loyal support it has received from the people. Dependent for maintenance upon the biennial grants of the legislature, it has never called in vain. The school has always been near to the hearts of the people. Its graduates, going out into hundreds of communities and there exemplifying by their lives and successful work the high character of training which the school was giving, won for their *alma mater* an abundant harvest of good-will and confidence. The usefulness of the school to the State is never called in question.

Another important factor in its growth has been that the State has not in the past dissipated its energies upon several normal schools—a policy which is prone to drag all down to a low level of doubtful efficiency—but has wisely used all its available resources for the development of a single institution

which should command the respect and win the admiration of the citizens. The school has therefore not been hampered by lack of funds nor by such sectional jealousies and struggles as are usual where several rival schools are clamoring for support and patronage. All citizens and all legislators have combined in furthering the interests of Michigan's single normal school. This fostering care has made possible a notable expansion in the work of the school and has led within recent years to a radical change in its character and sphere of activity. Originally and for many years the field which the institution occupied lay largely within the limits of secondary education. But during the past decade, along with constantly increasing requirements for admission, there has been a corresponding expansion in the curriculum. In 1888 there were 58 classes daily, in 1898 there were 160, and this with no great increase in the enrollment, but with a greatly increased average attendance. The faculty numbering less than twenty-five in 1888 numbered more than fifty in 1898. Along with a higher standard of work came a rapid increase in the number of high-school graduates entering the school, and proportionate decrease in the number of those graduating on the short courses. At present more than seventy-five per cent. of all students have finished high-school courses, and about eighty per cent. of all students entering go out on the life certificate course, and about one-third of these secure high-school positions.

A recognition of the fact that the school had changed its base from secondary to collegiate work, and that many of the departments were offering work fully equal in extent and quality to that required for an academic degree in many colleges and universities, led the legislature, in 1897, to pass an act by which the State Board of Education was empowered to designate the school, in courses leading to a life certificate and to a degree, as the Michigan State Normal College.

The normal college being thus established as a higher school of pedagogy, it became necessary to provide additional means for the training of teachers for rural and ungraded schools beyond what the normal college could supply. Therefore, in 1877 the legislature established a secondary normal at Mt.

Pleasant in the central portion of the State, and this year, 1899, the legislature has passed a bill for a similar normal school in the upper peninsula of the State. Graduates from these secondary schools may go for higher training to the normal college.

Every institution has, or thinks that it has, certain points of distinction or excellence on which it prides itself with more or less justice. This institution has a few such which perhaps deserve mention.

As most important is the great emphasis that the school lays upon abundant scholarship as the only sound foundation for successful teaching. Thoro academic instruction far beyond any possible demands for teaching should precede all formal instruction in methods. Normal schools have suffered seriously in reputation, and not unjustly so, in the estimation of scholarly men, in that they have often allowed superficial work and the worship of devices and methods to take the place of solidity of learning. Fads of all sorts, educational nostrums and panaceas, have too often emanated from normal schools. Holding that thoro knowledge of a subject is the only proper basis for any method of teaching and that, given the "what" the "how" will largely take care of itself, this institution has established a wide reputation for sound scholarship as well as for professional skill.

Another characteristic feature, and one which has had much to do with the later development of the institution, was the early adoption of the elective system in the choice of studies. The school early recognized the need of the individual student and equivalence in culture value of certain groups of subjects arranged in parallel courses. This general principle first found partial expression in 1870, when, in place of the single professional course of four years, there was substituted an English common-school course of two years, a full English course of three years, and a modern and an ancient classical course, each of four years. This arrangement was soon followed by larger options among the languages, and by a scientific course. In 1889 the number of parallel courses had increased to no less than thirteen. This, while affording large

options, was still cumbersome and confusing in practice, and led to much difficulty in classifications.

It remained to devise some simpler scheme which should, on the one hand, recognize the need of stringent requirements in certain great lines of culture for all intending teachers, and which should, on the other, preserve the sacredness of individual aptitudes and special capacities, in whose cultivation the greatest personal efficiency lies. The proper adjustment and practical application of this true principle of election in studies was accomplished under the wise and experienced leadership of President Richard G. Boone, who began his administration in 1893 and who was quick to see and to establish that freer policy in the election of studies toward which the school had long been gravitating thru a constantly increasing number of courses. There are now but three courses: (1) A course for teachers of rural and elementary graded schools, which leads to a certificate limited to five years. (2) A two-years' course for high-school graduates. (3) A longer course for those that have had but a partial high-school or only an elementary preparation. This course is four years long, excepting in so far as it is shortened by approved credits presented by the student on entrance. Courses two and three both lead to a diploma and a life certificate. Beyond the diploma and life certificate, conditions are offered by fulfilling which the degrees of bachelor of pedagogics and of master of pedagogics may be won. In all the above-named courses a certain amount of work is laid down as required for every student. The required work includes the great essentials to all liberal education and a minimum of psychology, pedagogy, and practice teaching. Outside of this the work is elective, being limited by such rules as to sequence and preparation as are laid down by the various departments. The amount of elective work varies from twenty-five to fifty per cent., according to the course chosen.

The elective system brought with it another important feature of the work of the college, viz.: the specializing courses. Students preparing for general work, principalships, and superintendencies, are placed on a general course which includes

but few electives. On the other hand, students having special gifts, and desires for special subjects, are put on a specializing course where the number of electives offered affords them every facility for pursuing their chosen work and of preparing themselves for special positions.

The specializing courses have had a strong stimulating effect upon the various departments and have led to a very large expansion in the amount of work and in the number of courses offered. This is especially noticeable in the departments of ancient and modern languages, where the work is entirely elective. In these the amount of academic work offered is quite as large as that of many colleges, and is accompanied by professional training of a thoro and searching character. Tho the demands are very severe, the number of students specializing in the languages is very large. Other departments show a similar growth. During the current year the departments of mathematics and history have offered the following courses:

COURSES IN MATHEMATICS

I. College courses :

a. Professional :

1. Teachers' course in arithmetic,		10 weeks
2. Teachers' course in algebra,		10 "
3. Teachers' course in geometry,		10 "
4. History of mathematics,		10 "
5. Advanced teaching,		20 "

b. Academic :

6. Higher algebra,		20 "
7. Theory of equations,		20 "
8. Trigonometry,		10 "
9. Surveying,		10 "
10. Analytical geometry,		10 "
11. Calculus,		30 "

II. High-school subjects :

12. Algebra I,		20 "
13. Algebra II,		20 "
14. Plane geometry,		20 "
15. Solid geometry,		20 "
16. Elementary arithmetic,		20 "

COURSES IN HISTORY

*I. College courses :**a. Professional :*

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------|----------|
| 1. Teachers' course in history, | | 10 weeks |
| 2. Teachers' course in civics, | | 10 " |
| 3. Historical material and method, | | 20 " |

b. Academic :

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|------|
| 4. Greek and Roman history, | | 20 " |
| 5. Continental history, | | 20 " |
| 6. American constitutional history, | | 20 " |
| 7. English constitutional history, | | 20 " |
| 8. Institutes of history, | | 20 " |
| 9. Political science, | | 10 " |
| 10. Political economy, | | 10 " |

II. High-school subjects :

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------|------|
| 11. United States history, | | 20 " |
| 12. Civil government, | | 20 " |
| 13. United States political history, | | 20 " |
| 14. General history, | | 20 " |
| 15. English history, | | 20 " |

Many friends of the school feared that the increasing requirements for admission and the larger demands for graduation would endanger the attendance and separate the college too far from the lower schools. The result has been quite the opposite. The classrooms and laboratories of the college are taxed to their utmost capacity. The effect on the secondary schools of increased requirements for admission has been stimulating, and pupils come far better prepared than formerly. High-school graduates now make up the great majority of the student body, and the length and severity of the curriculum compel a longer attendance than when the conditions for graduation were easier. The average attendance thru the year is above ninety per cent. of the enrollment, while in many normal schools the average attendance is scarcely fifty per cent. of the enrollment. Another fact is that the longer and more difficult course leading to a life certificate is the one chosen by the great majority. Out of a graduating class of 325 for the last year, but 45 were on the short course.

With the present year the college makes a new departure which will no doubt bring important results. It has been

decided to hold continuous session thruout the year. This has long been a subject for discussion by the State Board of Education and the faculty. It has in a measure been forced upon the school by the urgent demand from hundreds of teachers for summer work. Most of these occupy lucrative positions which they cannot afford to surrender for more schooling, but would gladly attend a professional school in the summer months, and in the course of time secure a coveted certificate or degree. It is for these, primarily, that the experiment is to be tried. That there is a need is clear from the fact that last year no less than seventy summer schools were in session in different parts of the State. These were conducted as private enterprises and were generally well attended. The teaching in such schools as these is almost always poor and the students attending them receive little of value and no recognized credit or certificate for their work. It is confidently expected that many will take advantage of the opportunity now afforded by the normal college. The year is to be divided into four quarters of twelve weeks each, with a week's intermission after each quarter. Any three quarters are to constitute a year's work. Students of education will watch with interest the working and the results of this plan.

Theoretical principles of teaching are of small value unless they are worked out in actual successful experience. It is by the character of the training school, therefore, that the efficiency of a normal school is to be largely measured. Practice-teaching in the Michigan State Normal College includes not only work in the grades, but extends into secondary subjects for such as are specializing in them. This is under the charge of the respective departments. The grade work is supervised by the director of the training-school, and over each grade is placed a critical teacher, who by example and criticism trains the seniors placed in her charge. It is, therefore, not merely a training school but also a school of observation. The quality of results depends upon the ability of the critic teacher, the time given to the work, and the number of seniors to be trained. The teachers are excellently qualified, the time demanded for training is twenty weeks, but of late the increased

number of seniors desiring practice has quite overwhelmed the capacity of the training school. Ten years ago there were about one hundred senior teachers, now there are over three hundred. However, in a few months a large and perfectly appointed new building, exemplifying the most recent improvements in school architecture in every respect, will again place this important work on a satisfactory basis. The training school is well provided with necessary apparatus and illustrative material, and with a well-selected library. A model elementary course of study has been marked out and is being followed, embracing a co-ordination of history, science, and literature, rather than a concentration upon any one of these.

The courses in professional instruction have kept pace with the enrichment and expansion of the academic subjects. In the last decade they have nearly doubled. About one-third of the average long course is given to professional work. Professional courses cover not only elementary subjects, but each has its professional work in secondary subjects as well designed for those students that are preparing to teach special branches. In each case a good knowledge of the subject must precede the study of methods. In addition to formal professional work it should not be forgotten that in a normal college every subject, even if called academic, is taught from its professional side and with the professional spirit. The ultimate aim of the institution—the preparation of successful teachers—is never lost sight of. In 1897 a purely professional course of one year was provided for college graduates.

The buildings of the school are mostly modern in conveniences and construction. The property value is estimated at \$350,000. Among the more recent buildings is the gymnasium, which for its size and cost is one of the best in the country. The department of physical training was established in 1894. There are three teachers in this department and twelve classes daily. All students must take at least a year's work in the gymnasium. Advanced elective work is provided for those that are fitting themselves for teaching physical culture.

The laboratories for physical and biological sciences are well

adapted to the needs of the school. The general library numbers about 20,000 volumes. The value and efficiency of this library cannot be measured by the number of volumes composing it, but rather by the character of the books and the use made of them. Few libraries are better selected and perhaps none is more used. Last year there was a daily average of 1200 calls for books. In addition to the general library are department libraries numbering from two to four hundred volumes each, which are kept in the various departments for the convenience of special students. Both the general and most of the department libraries are provided with carefully indexed card catalogues. As belonging to the equipment of the school and as possessing unquestionable educative value, mention should be made of the fine reproductions of ancient and modern art that have recently been placed about the halls and assembly rooms.

Reference has already been made to the large number of high-school graduates entering the college. These are admitted without examination, in case they come from an approved school. Schools are visited and examined, on application, at the expense of the college, by members of the faculty. Last year 720 graduates were admitted, coming from 160 approved high schools. All the higher institutions in the State, many of the academies and private schools, and more than half of the public high schools are closely affiliated with the normal college. This relation has proved to be mutually helpful and stimulating.

A normal school always feels a moral responsibility for the placing and success of its graduates. The close relations existing between this institution and its affiliated schools makes it comparatively easy for worthy graduates to find suitable positions. To further insure intelligent and discriminating adaptation of teacher to position, the normal faculty has this year established a teachers' bureau which, without cost to the students, act as an intermediary between school boards and those desiring positions. This bureau has already proved its usefulness in the economy of the school.

The reputation and efficiency of the college stands to-day

higher than ever before. Never before have its graduates been more in demand in this and other States. The hearty support of the people and the excellence of its buildings and equipment have done something to bring this about, but these would all be in vain were it not that the destinies of the school and its positions of honor and authority have been for years in the hands of talented men and women. The president, Dr. Richard G. Boone,¹ is a man of great energy, of large and sound ideas educationally, and of splendid executive ability. The present standing of the college is due in no small measure to his untiring efforts. He is ably supported in his administration by a faculty some of whom are men of national reputation.

It is hoped that this sketch of normal instruction in the State of Michigan may be of interest to students of education and of some value to other institutions that have to meet similar problems. Michigan's present success has been won after many years of hard experience, nor does she feel that she has attained but only that she is attaining. She has still many things to learn, for the proper professional preparation of teachers is by no means an easy problem.

B. L. D'OOGHE

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[¹ Dr. Boone resigned the presidency in the summer of 1899, and is now superintendent of schools at Cincinnati, O.—EDITOR.]

VIII

DISCUSSION

EDUCATIONAL EXPERTS

The tendency to disagreement among doctors has passed into a proverb. Such disagreement, however, when it exists among those who have earned the reputation of skilled practitioners, is never as to fundamentals in either the theory or the practice of medicine, but as to the causes of certain phenomena, or as to the best among many remedies for peculiar ailments. There are, however, quacks among those who write M. D. after their names; but when we are seeking expert judgment upon mooted questions in the science of medicine we are not wise if we turn to such men for advice.

The empiric, the one whose knowledge is measured by the range of his personal experience, is always ready to recommend a panacea and, allowing but little weight to the investigations of others, will deliver off-hand opinions, tho with ex-cathedra authority, upon matters that can be intelligently understood only after the most patient and widely-extended research. All this is just as true, and the failure to appreciate it is just as dangerous, in the science of education as in that of medicine. It is only during the lifetime of the present generation that education has been granted a place among the sciences, and here, as in other fields of intellectual effort, recognition has been secured in spite of the constant and active opposition of those for whose highest interest the struggle has been carried on.

The editor of the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW has said: "Science is wholly a matter of method; it is knowledge classified and nothing more." If that be true, then wherever an educational system has been found to be conspicuously lacking in method, the effort to render it methodical has been in the interest of the science of education, and hence demanding the services of educational experts, those who in classrooms, as

well as in educational libraries, have studied educational problems; whose theories as to fundamental defects in educational systems are not hastily offered, but have been tested by personal experience before presentation.

In December, 1897, the mayor of the city of Chicago asked of the city council leave to appoint an educational commission in order, as he said, "to utilize all that is good in the present system, to discard all that is defective, and to apply new methods where needed." The system of public-school administration in this great metropolis has become so conspicuously unmethodical, and, in the opinion of very many among those best qualified to judge, so certainly a factor taken into account in the councils of municipal and party politics, that to free it from such disastrous influences a radical reorganization was demanded. As the mayor said, the present system "is seriously handicapped by having to deal with the new conditions and difficult developments in the harness of antiquated methods," and hence "a change is needed, a change is essential in regard to the educational and business conduct of the school system."

Permission to appoint such commission having been granted, eleven citizens of this city were asked to undertake, without compensation, a duty than which none could be of greater importance to the welfare not only of Chicago, but of the many millions who, tho residing outside of her boundaries, must surely be greatly influenced by the type of American citizenship that shall be developed by her public-school system. Three of the men who accepted places on the commission were members of the city council, and four others were members of the board of education, or had been members of that body. In its make-up the commission was confessedly, in politics, non-partisan, and, in religion, non-sectarian, while the personal fitness of its members, as citizens of this "no mean city," to deal with educational questions was a guarantee that the best interests of teachers as well as of pupils and patrons would be considered in a sympathetic and unprejudiced spirit.

A year elapsed between the appointment of the educational commission and the rendition of its final and complete report. What those eleven men were doing during that time, and that

they performed the task assigned them, not as mere dilettanti, but as earnest workers who appreciated the necessity of a thoro reformation of our public-school system, can best be understood and appreciated by quoting at considerable length from the preface to their final report.

After one or two preliminary conferences the commission chose William R. Harper chairman, appointed George F. James secretary, and adopted a formal plan of work. To determine the scope of their investigations the members issued first a letter of inquiry covering various phases of school affairs. This letter was widely circulated among all classes of the community, insuring to all who desired an opportunity to offer suggestions. The commission secured further the *active co-operation of fifty prominent educators of the country* who, by personal interview and by letter, gave their aid in settling on recommendations for the report. The various subjects in reference to which suggestions were received, were classified and made topics for discussion at successive weekly meetings. Consideration was given at each meeting to the specific criticisms and suggestions of those acquainted with the Chicago schools, to a review of the experience in other cities, and to *the advice of those best qualified to speak with authority*. The commission was assisted in its work by the conclusions of similar committees in other cities, particularly in New York and Boston, by papers on city and school problems read before State and national meetings of teachers, and by the report of the Committee of Fifteen of the National Educational Association. The active co-operation of the Chicago board of education, *the corps of school superintendents, principals and teachers* and the recommendations of various individuals and clubs, enabled the commission to consider *every phase of opinion about the school system* before formulating its report. After five months of work the members held continuous sessions for one week and as a result drew up a series of "Suggestions for the Improvement of a City School System." This pamphlet was privately printed and submitted to those interested in public schools both here and in other cities. In this way the commission secured more definite opinions and was enabled during the summer and autumn to review still more carefully the general scope of the report. In November continuous sessions were held, at which the first draft of the report was read and reviewed. During December the report was again revised. *Aside from the continuous sessions held in the spring and in the autumn the commission gave thirty meetings to its work, in addition to which much was accomplished thru the labors of special sub-committees.*

In the above quotation I have italicized certain statements for a purpose which will appear farther on.

To the September number of this REVIEW Mr. Joseph W. Errant, who from 1894 to 1897 was a member of the Board of Education of Chicago, contributed an article entitled, "The Chicago school situation." Of the final report of the educa-

tional commission he says: "In the main it is a discussion of administrative measures. As a summary of some matters which have been talked about up to the present time it is quite admirable." In the brief history of the appointment of the commission given above it is seen that it was formed for the express purpose of considering the public-school system of Chicago as at present operating, and for the reason that a change in that system was imperatively demanded. Such and such only being the purpose of its creation, and the single aim of all its investigations, a careful study of the many suggestions and recommendations which make up the more than 250 pages of the quarto volume in which the report has been published would seem to indicate that the mayor made a wise selection of men, and that their work is "quite admirable," not only "as a summary of matters which have been talked about," but as pointing the way to that radical reform in the administration of our public schools the necessity for which alone justified the appointment and painstaking labors of the commission. In the opinion of Mr. Errant, however, they labored in vain, or rather they have for the time being, at any rate, merely made bad matters worse; for, after reviewing in a general way the report which was the outcome of the many sessions and conferences referred to in one of the italicized portions of the report quoted above, he says: "A new educational commission is needed, a commission made up of master minds, who, speaking from a life's experience in their work to those who have had a life's experience in the same line of work, can feel that each will understand the other." It is not clear as to what is meant by a commission of "master minds" divided into two classes (tho the experience of both has been gathered by lifelong effort in the same line of work), who are to exchange views upon educational problems. In my opinion Mr. Errant errs in his condemnation of the commission's report, qualified as that condemnation is by the faint praise I have quoted, because of the wrong point of view from which he writes. He endeavors to be non-partisan in his discussion of the Chicago school situation, but in such statements as that "the teaching corps of the city of Chicago had very little interest therein," *i. e.*, the report of the commission, he unconsciously

betrays a bias in favor of those teachers who, having triumphed in their attack upon the bill in which the commission formulated such of its conclusions as required legislation to render them operative, now claim that the measure which drew the largest attendance at the many clubs and confederations among which the more than five thousand public-school teachers of Chicago are divided, and which excited the most heated discussions that have ever been known in those meetings, was, after all, a matter in which "the teaching corps of Chicago had very little interest." Such a statement will certainly be news to the reportorial corps of this city, who for months and almost daily, while the last General Assembly of Illinois was in session, chronicled the coming and going, between Chicago and Springfield, of committees representing the many teachers' societies, all alike bent upon killing that which the singular unanimity of fearful foreboding they styled the Harper Bill.

The opposition which the proposed enactment of that bill into statutory law aroused was noteworthy in two particulars. First, in that it was confined almost exclusively to the teachers in the grammar, or, as they are now called here, the elementary, schools; neither the principals of those schools, nor the principals and teachers in the high schools, taking any part in the war waged against the bill. Second, after the dense smoke that at first obscured the assaulting host had cleared away, it was found that their attack was to be concentrated upon that portion of Section 29 in the obnoxious bill that provides as follows regarding the superintendent:

He shall have power to appoint assistant superintendents, principals, teachers and attendance officers to such positions as the board of education shall from time to time authorize, to promote teachers and fix their grade on the salary schedule and dismiss any officer or teacher so appointed; provided, however, that all such appointments, promotions, compensations and dismissals shall be reported to the board, and shall stand as final unless disapproved by a majority vote of all the members thereof not later than the second meeting after the report is made thereto; provided further, that no teacher or attendance officer shall be appointed, and no teacher be promoted until after examination and approval by an examining board hereinafter provided for; and provided further, that every person applying for a position as teacher when approved by the examining board shall be given by the superintendent a provisional certificate of qualification for two years, which, after proof of success for this period,

shall be made permanent: and provided lastly that no teacher shall be considered definitely employed during good service and on good behavior until after such successful probation of two successive years.

The change in the present system that would be made, were that provision a part of our school-law to-day is certainly in harmony with the opinions of all those who have written or spoken with any authority upon the question of superintendency during the past ten years. Briefly, it means concentrated supervisory power and clearly defined official accountability. Its aim is perfection in the administration of our public-school system. But, says Mr. Errant: "It is not perfection of administration that the teachers of Chicago want." I wonder if a majority of even the grade teachers in our public schools are ready with a hearty Amen! to that statement? If so, then the need for the legislation that they have thus far defeated is even more urgent than the most radical reformer has supposed. It is, however, in the evident sympathy with what Mr. Errant supposes to be the fundamental cause of the opposition that the report of the educational commission encountered, that he seems to me to be considering that report from the wrong point of view.

Grant that Mayor Harrison's reasons for appointing the commission were good and sufficient, then no commission such as Mr. Errant suggests would accomplish the purpose, for it would be a sort of mutual-admiration society that would report to itself and not thru the appointing power to the public. Just such changes as were contemplated by that section of the lamented bill, from which I have quoted above, were strongly urged in both of the annual reports that were made by our board of education while Mr. Errant was a member of that body. In his report for the school year of 1894-95 the president said:

I maintain this to be true, that no board of education however wise and prudent, however jealous and zealous for the good name of its schools, can in the nature of things hope to act for the highest efficiency of the schools on their own motion, especially in the matter of the selection of teachers. That great trust, I am compelled to believe, should be entirely committed to the superintendent and his associates.

In the report for 1895-96, I find this:

I reiterate my solemn conviction that if you would have better equipped and more thoroly trained teachers, you must commit the selection of teachers and their general direction to the superintendent and his assistants and hold them responsible for but one thing, good schools. To appoint an expert executive officer, and then to withhold from him the free and untrammelled administration of his official function, is wholly absurd and insensate.

If from this opinion Mr. Errant dissents, as he must if he sympathizes with what he so positively declares to be the position of our teachers in regard to reform in the administration of our school system, then he illustrates the proverb that I cited in the beginning of this review of his article, but among those who unanimously indorse the views as above quoted from the annual reports are the "fifty prominent educators of this country" who actively co-operated with the educational commission in the compilation of their exhaustive report. Among these are the superintendents of the public schools of Philadelphia, Pa.; Peoria, Ill.; Brookline, Mass.; New Orleans, La.; Newark, N. J.; Denver, Col.; Kansas City, Mo.; Toronto, Canada; Cleveland, Ohio; New York, Boston, Washington, St. Louis, and Baltimore, and among the well-known teachers and writers upon educational themes of every character, whose advice was sought and secured, the following: Andrew S. Draper, Charles W. Eliot, William T. Harris, Daniel C. Gilman, Nicholas Murray Butler, Seth Low, and David Starr Jordan. If the new educational commission that Mr. Errant suggests were appointed, where would they look for abler collaborateurs than these men whose views, indorsing the recommendations of the educational commission, appear in footnotes that, in the aggregate, form fully one-half of the report. Says Mr. Errant: "Much that has been done by Mayor Harrison and the school board during the past two years has been reactionary." It is significant that the critic of the mayor left the school board just two years ago. "Democracy," says Mr. Errant, "with its social ideals, has possession of the teaching force of the city of Chicago." I wondered when I read that if he was thinking of the violent attack made upon the "Harper Bill" on a certain Sunday afternoon upon the platform of a large labor union, and by two of the most prominent among the women of our teaching force, who there declared that the

passage of that bill meant the reduction of every teacher in our schools to the position of a slave, who, as such, would be unable to educate freemen. That sounded much more like demagoguery than like democracy; but both of those speakers were, a few days after, highly honored by their fellow-teachers.

In my judgment no contribution to public-school literature of such value as the report of our mayor's educational commission has been made during the last twenty-five years, and in deciding upon its special value to the public-school system of Chicago, my opinion is based upon visits made to more than sixty of our public schools, in the course of which more than half an hour was spent in each of more than four hundred different classrooms.

As an adverse critic of the work of the educational commission Mr. Errant seems to be very unfortunate in the illustration with which at the close of his article he seeks to clinch his argument against the report. He says: "Mere administration often seems like the exterior of a great and noble building, from the outside view the perfection of beauty and of art. One goes up the magnificent stairway in front of the building and rings the bell. The door is opened. One steps thru the door and finds—nothing."

The door-bell suggests a rather antiquated structure, but if "the door is opened" it must be by someone within. How, then, is it that, "stepping thru the door" (an athletic feat), one finds nothing? He would certainly find the one who opened the door.

Accepting Mr. Errant's invitation to prophesy of Chicago's public-school system when the educational commission's recommendations by bill and otherwise shall have become controlling, I ask him to note over the main entrance of the building the name, "Chicago's Reorganized Public School System" and if he will now ascend the magnificent stairway and "press the button," the door will be opened; and stepping thru the doorway he will be greeted, not as he would now be by the janitor, but by the Superintendent in Charge, Mr. —.

AARON H. NELSON

IX

REVIEWS

The history of Greece—from its commencement to the close of the independence of the Greek nation—By ADOLPH HOLM. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1894-98 : 4 vols., 432, 535, 456, 634 p. \$6.00.

Tho the great work of Grote remains, and probably will long remain, the ablest and most thoro treatment of Grecian history in existence, the development of historical method and the accumulation of new historical material during recent years make it necessary to supplement and to correct the results of his labor. Curtius has improved upon Grote in the treatment of the non-political elements of history, as geography and landscape, art, literature, and personal character. Yet, notwithstanding the superior resources at his command, the work of Curtius is far less substantial than that of his predecessor. For instance, his first volume is as a whole already antiquated, because it proceeds largely from the short-lived view that the migrations and settlements of the various Greek races may be determined by a study of their cults. Then, too, his theory as to the moral decline of the Athenians in the fifth century B. C., and again in the fourth—a theory at once self-contradictory and unsupported by evidence—vitiates a large portion of his history. It must be borne in mind, also, that since the first appearance of his work, critical methods have been sharpened to such an extent that much which Curtius accepted without questioning is now set down as doubtful or as absolutely unfounded. The need of a history of Greece which should represent the scholarship of the present day is, therefore, obvious. Several such works have recently appeared in Germany, one of which, Holm's *Griechische Geschichte*, has been translated into English. Commanding the resources of the classical scholar, at home in Greek archæology, numismatics, and other auxiliary studies, and in thoro touch with modern historical methods, Holm has written a history which will undoubtedly have a lasting value. As it rests upon

independent research, the reader may expect to find thruout the work fresh ideas, new and suggestive points of view. Recurring nearly to the standpoint of Grote, the author draws a sharp line of distinction between myth and history. The worn-out process of making history by rationalizing myths,—by extracting from them their “kernels of truth,”—he has totally discarded. In like manner, the author aims thruout the work to let the reader know what is well-established fact and what is mere inference or hypothesis. His estimate, too, of men and of measures, is usually deliberate and sound. Hence he is one of the most trustworthy of historians. The scope of the work is broad, embracing the whole life of the Hellenic race in its varied aspects. It deals, accordingly, not merely with war and politics, but with the social, intellectual, and artistic development of the race as well; and while the interest naturally centers in Sparta, Athens, Thebes, and Macedon, in the Greek continent and the Ægean Sea, a fair proportion of the work is devoted to the outlying settlements of the Greeks on the Black Sea, in Africa, in Italy, and in Sicily.

Tho Holm has the scholar in mind, he speaks primarily to the general reader. His notes and citations, placed accordingly at the end of the chapter rather than at the foot of the page, are few and brief—useful for testing the author’s views rather than for an exhaustive study of his sources. The moderate compass of the work will commend it to many to whom Grote and Curtius seem formidable. Three volumes cover the classic period; the fourth volume, which carries the narrative far beyond the Roman conquest, is the only good continuous treatment of this late period accessible to the English reader.

Notwithstanding its many excellent features, some fault may be found with the work. The author still clings to Lycurgus and still believes in a “Dorian migration,” tho neither could endure the test of his own canons of criticism. Occasionally he seems unfair in his treatment of men; for instance, of Demosthenes, the orator. In this case, the author fails to appreciate the fact that the struggle between Philip and Demosthenes involved a conflict between two great principles, that in the person of Philip imperialism threatened the existence of local and individual freedom. Philip’s cause was the stronger; that

of Demosthenes, however petty it may seem in these days of great states and empires, was the nobler and the holier cause. And as to the moral character of the orator, which Holm assails, we should judge it by the practical standards furnished by our own public men rather than by the ideal standard of the schoolmaster. Another illustration may not be out of place. It is difficult to understand why, with the slight evidence which the author adduces, he should persecute the memory of Aratus. He who built the Achæan League, the noblest political creation of the Greeks, and who as a statesman, commanded the life-long confidence of his fellow-citizens, tho not a Washington, must have possessed some admirable traits of character. Altho Polybius and Plutarch, our chief sources for Aratus, are enthusiastic in their praise of his ability and his patriotism, our author regards him as a mere "political boss." Another weakness of Holm is his desire to be exhaustive. Some pages he has made unreadable by massing facts which have no apparent value, except perhaps to the specialist. This holds especially for those parts of his work in which the sources do not furnish material for a continuous narrative.

To the shortcomings of the original may be added those of the English version. The translators, thru their careless errors, have sometimes played havoc with the sense. More difficult to remedy than this occasional carelessness is their unfortunate style. The clear, vigorous, and even graceful language of the original they have translated into awkward, disjointed English; at times they are unnecessarily obscure.

Yet we may be thankful that the work has been done, and may count it a great gain to the historical scholarship of England as well as of America. To those who are interested in promoting the study of classical history it would be gratifying to see a copy of Holm's *History of Greece* placed in every college and secondary-school library in the country, and to see the teacher of Grecian history making it the chief reading and reference book of his classes.

GEORGE W. BOTSFORD

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X

EDITORIAL

A Superintendent who Superintends

After years of clerical and routine school supervision, New York is the proud possessor of a superintendent of schools who has ideas and who ventures to express them. The experience is as exhilarating as it is novel. The first annual report of the city superintendent of schools to the board of education of New York, for the year ending July 31, 1899, is a noteworthy document from any point of view. The school politicians have kindly made it famous as well.

The report was presented in print at the October meeting of the board of education. While lying upon the desks of the members, and before the resolution to print and distribute it had been voted on, a member from the borough of Brooklyn, himself not wholly innocent of the ways of politicians, observed in it some passages that commented unfavorably on several forms of educational activity that are dear to the Brooklyn school politicians and to their majesties, "the people" of Brooklyn. So this valiant defender of "the people's" rights, spoke as follows:

"Mr. President, I object to the publishing of the city superintendent's report until it has been passed upon by the committee on school system. I find that in a criticism of the local committee system he has made statements about the Brooklyn board which are untrue. As president of that board I must object to the publication of this report until the matter has come before the committee."

This was a truly Brooklynese idea. No action of an educational officer, even to the official expression of his views and recommendations, without action by a blessed committee, "local" if possible! Superintendent Maxwell, however, whose greatest charm, as well as his greatest source of strength, is his incapacity to please Tammany Hall and the Brooklyn local committeemen, responded:

"I am empowered by the charter to make this report in its present form, and I will not allow it to go to the committee for censorship. In this I am

sustained by several decisions of the highest courts, which have declared that such a report must be accepted without change."

But of course the report was sent to the committee, and equally of course the committee will find that it is in the hands of the courts if it attempts to mutilate the report, and in the hands of indignant public opinion if it attempts to suppress it.

The passage which excited the Brooklyn representatives was this:

The borough of Brooklyn is permitted by the charter to retain for the present its local committee system of appointing, transferring, and promoting principals and teachers. This exception to the general method of nominating teachers which is to prevail thruout the city, is provided for by the following sentence found in section 1103 of the charter: "The system or mode of nomination in this section provided for shall not be held to deprive any school board that has been a board of education of the right to appoint, to promote, and to transfer principals, teachers and other members of the teaching staff without such nomination, in any borough, in which, at the time this act takes effect, said board of education enjoys such right of appointment without nomination by superintendents, until the same shall have been adopted by the School Board of said borough." The last clause of this sentence enables the School Board of Brooklyn to get rid by a simple resolution of a system of appointing and promoting teachers that has retarded progress ever since the Brooklyn city school system was established. It is hardly necessary for me to say that I have known local committees that did excellent work in the case of individual schools; but, in the main, the effect of the system has been injurious. There are certain characteristics of the system, which appear on the surface, that must condemn it in the eyes of thinking men. Some of these characteristics are as follows:

1. The young women who are licensed to teach in the borough of Brooklyn are compelled to visit the places of business and residences of members of the School Board to sue for appointment, and to bring political and other pressure on the members to secure places. Under this system a young woman who is without friends or influence, no matter what her attainments may be, usually receives an appointment, if at all, only after her inferiors who have "influence" have been provided for. The counter proposition which I submit is that teachers should be nominated in the order of their standing on the eligible list, and that every teacher licensed should have an equal chance for appointment. I submit that after a teacher has given up several of the best years of her life to the work of preparation for the teaching profession and has successfully passed all required tests, she has a moral right to an opportunity to demonstrate what she can do in the classroom without being subjected to the ignominy of suing for an appointment and without being compelled to resort to the tricks of the lowest grade of politician.

2. The same unseemly and unprofessional devices that are often required to secure appointment are not seldom employed to secure promotion. The result is that many principals and teachers have been pro-

moted to places for which they are ill-adapted or wholly unfit, to the great injury of the cause of education in Brooklyn.

3. The local committee system has driven many of the best men that ever sat in the Brooklyn board to resign or refuse reappointment because they felt that they had not the expert knowledge necessary to select teachers for particular positions and because the continuous importunity of teachers and their friends for appointment and promotion was utterly distasteful to them.

4. Under the local committee system it is almost impossible to bring about the transfer of principals and teachers from school to school when such transfer is necessary for the good of the system, because each local committee has supreme control of its own school and there is no central power clothed with authority to transfer a teacher from one school to another.

5. The system is deprived of the inestimable advantage of having experts in educational work assign each teacher to that work for which he or she is best qualified. By some local committees the principals of schools are consulted as to the assignment of teachers to classes, but as a rule this is not so.

It will be argued, perhaps, that, notwithstanding the local committee system, great progress has been made during the last few years in the Brooklyn schools. The statement is undoubtedly true. I can myself testify, however, that every step of that progress was retarded and that much progress was prevented by the local committee system.

The charter provides the Brooklyn School Board with the opportunity to rid the Brooklyn schools of the incubus of the local committee system by passing a simple resolution. Shall not the resolution be passed?

Every word of it is true, of course. Superintendent Maxwell saw this local committee system, from the inside, for a dozen years or more. If pushed, he is likely to produce an unpleasant and confounding array of names and dates. This REVIEW has looked into the Brooklyn local committee system a little and has expressed the opinion that that system is the greatest abomination to be found in the educational system of any American city to-day. It will have to go in time, but the time will be hastened and the teachers and children sooner set free from the wire-pullers if Superintendent Maxwell will turn on the light at frequent and irregular intervals.

Newspaper Comments

The New York newspapers, educated by the struggles of the past decade, spoke out bravely on the side of right and of decent schools. We give a few characteristic extracts:

In accordance with his duty under the charter, Mr. Maxwell, superintendent of the public schools of Greater New York, has made a report to the central board of education. In that document he has censured the system of appointing and promoting teachers in the Brooklyn schools. Thereupon the Brooklyn Commissioners of Education have had the report referred to a committee for the purpose of having the criticisms stricken out.

This is foolish and wrong. Moreover, it is a distinct interference with the right and duty of the superintendent. Be he right or wrong in his criticisms, it is his right to make them. It is his right to have his report published, and not a version made by the commissioners.

The Brooklyn commissioners should show, if they can, that Mr. Maxwell's strictures are erroneous, but they have no business to mutilate or suppress his reports.—*Sun* (Rep.), October 13.

There is no question that the criticism made by Mr. Maxwell on the Brooklyn plan of regulating the appointment and promotion of teachers by local committees, with no central authority to control it, is entirely justified. The plan is bad in theory and has given rise to bad results. Mr. Maxwell's description of these results, emphatic and severe as it is, is mild in comparison with the facts as they exist.—*Times* (Ind.), October 13.

No one who reads Superintendent Maxwell's able, intelligent, and undoubtedly truthful description of the abuses connected with the appointment of teachers in the public schools of Brooklyn will be surprised that President Robertson of the Brooklyn borough board tried to have the report suppressed by the board of education yesterday. Now that public attention has been called to Dr. Maxwell's report, the less unlawful tampering with it the Board of Education attempts the less public indignation there will be against the board. Dr. Maxwell has the confidence of the community—which cannot be said of those who try to cheat the children of the people by giving them teachers whose chief recommendation is their political influence.—*World* (Dem.), October 12.

It cannot be maintained that Dr. Maxwell does not know what he is talking about, for he was long associated with the Brooklyn schools, and knows their condition better than anyone else. Neither will it do to dismiss him with the deadly charge that he "is an able and efficient superintendent, but a confirmed and inveterate idealist with a disposition to magnify his office." That precious view of the case is put forth without a wink by the Brooklyn *Eagle*, and should be put in its proper classification with the argument of "getting close to the people." It was because Dr. Maxwell was a "confirmed and inveterate idealist" that he was chosen for his position, and he is acting now in accordance with his lifelong character. If there is any spot on earth in which an "idealist" is more thoroly in place than at the head of the public-school system of a city controlled by a horde of ignorant barbarians, we do not know what it is.—*Evening Post* (Ind.), October 13.

The local committee system is and always has been bad. Both in Manhattan and Brooklyn it was a stronghold of school politics. For its preservation here Tammany fought for years, and its existence in another form

in Brooklyn has often been objected to by educational experts. Its toleration there was one of the compromises of the charter, making nominally a concession to the home rule sentiment which was supposed to fear the destruction of Brooklyn schools by some Manhattan tyrant, really a placation of the school politicians who had defended the patronage system when the question of autonomy was in no way involved. The plan of giving to a small committee the power to appoint, transfer, and promote teachers directly encourages wirepulling, just as Dr. Maxwell declares. A teacher, after passing examinations and securing a place on the eligible list, must then seek out committeemen of a certain school and endeavor to impress them by personal or political influence. If that committee has other favorites the attempt must be repeated on somebody else. It is a case of hit or miss all around, and even if the best qualified teachers secure places the chances are against their being put just where their particular abilities are most needed, while, if the assignments were made by somebody supervising many classes, much more satisfactory adjustments would be likely.—*Tribune* (Rep.), October 16.

Even the Brooklyn *Eagle*, long the rhetorical apologist for every Brooklyn school abuse, admitted that the local committee system was not perfect.

The sorriest exhibition was made by Borough Superintendent Ward of Brooklyn. He is a good man and a sincere worker for better things; but the character and extent of the malign influences in the Brooklyn schools are revealed when he feels compelled to say, in defense of his superiors: "I believe that a business man of intelligence is better qualified to run a school system than a professional educator, as he is guided more by what the people actually want." As the New York *Tribune* remarked, this is the usual plea for the spoils system everywhere. Mr. Ward must recall that statement soon, or the years to come will not be long enough for him to live it down. It is unprofessional and uneducational to the last degree, and, consciously or unconsciously, a mere yielding to the influences which surround him.

All public-school men should read Superintendent Maxwell's report. Its statistics are most instructive. Its recommendations and criticisms are invaluable. It is the work of an honest and courageous man who stands up in a community ruled by barbarians and self-seekers, and points out the path of honor and of duty. Every decent and worthy influence in New York is behind Superintendent Maxwell in his fight for the rights of the children and of the silent citizens and

against the grasping selfishness of the beloved "people"; to wit, the spoils-hunters and their friends.

The New English Board of Education Act—The act relating to a central board of education for England and Wales, to which detailed reference was made in an article printed in the *EDUCATIONAL REVIEW* for September last,¹ passed the House of Commons early in August, and became a law. The provisions of the act go into effect on April 1, 1900. The measure is of such importance that we are glad to print its full text below:

BOARD OF EDUCATION ACT, 1899

ARRANGEMENT OF SECTIONS

Section.

1. Establishment of Board of Education
2. Duties and powers of Board of Education
3. Inspection of secondary schools
4. Consultative Committee
5. Orders to be laid before Parliament
6. Staff, remuneration, and expenses
7. Style, seal, and proceedings of Board of Education
8. Power for President or Secretary to sit in Parliament
9. Extent, commencement, and short title

SCHEDULE

An Act to provide for the Establishment of a Board of Education for England and Wales, and for matters connected therewith.

Be it enacted by the Queen's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows.

1.—(1) There shall be established a Board of Education charged with the superintendence of matters relating to education in England and Wales.

Establishment of Board of Education (2) The Board shall consist of a President, and of the Lord President of the Council (unless he is appointed President of the Board), Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, the First Commissioner of Her Majesty's Treasury, and the Chancellor of her Majesty's Exchequer.

(3) The existing Vice-President of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education shall also be a member of the Board, but on the next vacancy in his office the office shall be abolished, and the enactments mentioned in the schedule to this Act shall be repealed.

(4) The President of the Board shall be appointed by Her Majesty, and shall hold office during her Majesty's pleasure.

(5) The Board shall be deemed to be established on the appointment of the President thereof.

¹ See p. 178-9.

2.—(1) The Board of Education shall take the place of the Education Department (including the Department of Science and Art), and all enactments and documents shall be construed accordingly.

Duties and
Powers of Board
of Education

(2) It shall be lawful for Her Majesty in Council, from time to time, by Order, to transfer to, or make exercisable by, the Board of Education any of the powers of the Charity Commissioners or of the Board of Agriculture in matters appearing to Her Majesty to relate to education, and the Order may make such provision as appears necessary for applying to the exercise of those powers by the Board of Education the enactments relating to the Charity Commissioners or to the Board of Agriculture.

Provided that any question as to whether an endowment or any part of an endowment is held for or ought to be applied to educational purposes shall be determined by the Charity Commissioners.

3.—(1) The Board of Education may by their officers, or, after taking the advice of the Consultative Committee hereinafter mentioned, by any University or other organization, inspect any school supplying secondary education and desiring to be so inspected, for the purpose of ascertaining the character of the teaching in the school and the nature of the provisions made for the teaching and health of the scholars, and may so inspect the school on such terms as may be fixed by the Board of Education with the consent of the Treasury: Provided that the inspection of schools established by scheme under the Welsh Intermediate Education Act, 1889, shall, subject to regulations made by the Treasury under section nine of that Act, be conducted as heretofore by the Central Welsh Board for Intermediate Education, and that the said Board shall be recognized as the proper organization for the inspection of any such schools as may be desirous of inspection under this section.

Inspection of
secondary
schools

(2) The Council of any county or county borough may out of any money applicable for the purpose of technical education pay or contribute to the expenses of inspecting under this section any school within their county or borough.

4.—It shall be lawful for Her Majesty in Council, by Order, to establish a Consultative Committee consisting, as to not less than two-thirds, of persons qualified to represent the views of Universities and other bodies interested in education, for the purpose of—

Consultative
Committee

(a) framing with the approval of the Board of Education, regulations for a register of teachers, which shall be formed and kept in manner to be provided by Order in Council: Provided that the register so formed shall contain the names of the registered teachers arranged in alphabetical order, with an entry in respect to each teacher showing the date of his registration, and giving a brief record of his qualifications and experience; and

(b) advising the Board of Education on any matter referred to the committee by the Board.

5.—The draft of any Order proposed to be made under this Act shall be laid before each House of Parliament for not less than four weeks during which that House is sitting, before it is submitted to her Majesty in Council.

Orders to be
laid before
Parliament

6.—(1) The Board of Education may appoint such secretaries, officers, and servants as the Board may, with the sanction of the Treasury, determine.

Staff, remuneration, and expenses

(2) There shall be paid, out of moneys provided by Parliament, to the President of the Board, unless he holds another salaried office, such annual salary not exceeding two thousand pounds, and to the secretaries, officers and servants of the Board such salaries or remuneration, as the Treasury may determine.

7.—(1) The Board of Education may sue and be sued and may for all purposes be described by that name.

Style, seal and proceedings of Board of Education

(2) The Board shall have an official seal, which shall be officially and judicially noticed, and that seal shall be authenticated by the signature of the President or some member of the Board, or of a Secretary, or of some person authorized by the President or some member of the Board to act on behalf of a secretary.

(3) Every document purporting to be an instrument issued by the Board of Education, and to be sealed with the seal of the Board, authenticated in manner provided by this Act, or to be signed by a secretary or any person authorized by the President or some member of the Board to act on behalf of a secretary, shall be received in evidence, and be deemed to be such an instrument without further proof, unless the contrary is shown.

(4) A certificate signed by the President or any member of the Board of Education that any instrument purporting to be made or issued by the President or some member of the Board is so made or issued shall be conclusive evidence of the fact.

8.—(1) The office of President of the Board of Education shall not render the person holding it incapable of being elected to, or of voting in, the

Power for President or secretary to sit in Parliament

Commons House of Parliament, and shall be deemed to be an office included in Schedule H. of the Representation of the People Act, 1867; in Schedule H. of the Representation of the People (Scotland) Act, 1868; in Schedule E. of the Representation of the People (Ireland) Act, 1868; and in Part I. of the Schedule of the Promissory Oaths Act, 1868.

(2) After the abolition of the office of the Vice-President of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education, one of the secretaries of the Board of Education shall not by reason of his office be incapable of being elected to or of voting in the Commons House of Parliament.

9.—(1) This Act shall not extend to Scotland or Ireland.

Extent, commencement and short title

(2) This Act shall come into operation on the first day of April one thousand nine hundred.

(3) This Act may be cited as the Board of Education Act, 1899.

SCHEDULE: ENACTMENTS REPEALED

(1) The Education Department Act, 1856. The whole Act. (2) The Public Health Act, 1858. In section seven the words "the Vice-President of the Committee of the said Privy Council on Education being one of them."

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

DECEMBER, 1899

I

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION ¹

The phrase commercial education is likely to remind an American of the commercial course in a public high school, or of the fictitious banks, offices, and shops of the private school called a commercial college. The so-called commercial course in an American high school is almost universally a course hopelessly inferior to the other courses, being made up by substituting bookkeeping, stenography, type-writing, and commercial arithmetic for some of the language, history, mathematics, or science of the classical, or English-scientific course. This course exists in our public schools, because it has for committee-men and parents a practical sound. It seems as if the child who had learnt a little about these technical subjects might be better able to earn its living early than the child who had only studied languages, history, mathematics, and science. For the purposes of mental training, or of mental power-getting, this course is never to be recommended; and it is rare that the slight knowledge of these arts acquired by pupils in the public schools proves to be of much use to them in winning a livelihood. The so-called commercial schools supplement for many young people a defective elementary education; but they seldom train anybody for service above that of a clerk. It is not of any such training that I propose to speak.

I ask your attention for a few moments to the chief features of a commercial education capable of preparing men and women for much more than clerical service and much more

¹ An address at the National Export Exposition, Philadelphia, Pa., October 20, 1899.

than narrow retail trading. An indispensable element in the training I have in view is a sound secondary education—that is, an education in a first-rate school, public, endowed, or private, which occupies the whole school-time of the pupil from thirteen or fourteen till eighteen years of age. This secondary education should include the modern languages—an essential part of a good preparation for the higher walks of business life. It may or may not include Latin, or Latin and Greek. Thus the German non-classical secondary education is a very substantial preparation for business life, altho it includes no technical subjects whatever. It deals with modern languages, including the native tongue, the elementary mathematics, history, and science both pure and applied. For international commercial life in English-speaking countries a good knowledge of three languages beside English is desirable—namely, French, German, and Spanish. A reading-knowledge of the languages will ordinarily suffice for principals; but for traveling agents, or agents resident abroad, a speaking knowledge of at least two of these languages is desirable. This knowledge should be acquired at the secondary school.

Let us imagine a boy equipped at eighteen with these broad fundamental acquisitions, and let us then ask ourselves what additional subjects should be treated in an upper commercial school. The following list of subjects is by no means complete, but may serve to give a fair idea of the diversity and difficulty of the subjects appropriate to superior commercial education: economics, statistics, banking, currency, exchange, arbitrage, insurance, government tariffs, transportation by land and water, commercial geography, climates, ethnology, commercial products by region and by nationality or race, consumption by region and by race, maritime legislation, blockade rights, neutrals' rights, commercial law, industrial combinations of capital, labor unions, and—if I may use a new but convenient word—financing new undertakings. Some of these subjects are already taught elaborately in universities; and the elements and general principles of all of them can be taught systematically to groups of pupils and enforced by examples and problems, just as well as styles of architecture, rules of evidence in law,

or the diagnostic value of blood examinations in medicine are now taught and enforced in special schools. That a given subject has practical applications, and is to be really mastered only by much practice, is no reason why it should not be taught systematically in its elements by teachers skilled in expounding principles and guiding practice.

It is obvious from the mere enumeration of these subjects that no young man could master any large proportion of the list in the two or three years which might wisely be allotted to such studies. A system of choice among these studies would, therefore, have to prevail in any well-conducted commercial school. The variety of business occupations in the modern world is immense, some of them being very broad, and others very narrow; and for these various occupations widely different bodies of information or knowledges are needed. We can classify these occupations, and say that some of them are trade, others are manufacturing, and others are transportation; but there are many business occupations which are concerned with all these three groups, or with portions of them all. The youth who entered the upper commercial school knowing what business he is subsequently to pursue would have sure guidance in the selection of his studies; the youth who had no such knowledge would do well to acquaint himself with the general principles of the most fundamental subjects.

For what classes of persons would such a training, extending on the average thru the twenty-first year, be appropriate and desirable? Let me first exclude two classes of young men. An elaborate training of this description is not necessary for men whose occupation thru life is to be purely clerical. For that class the investment of time and money would be unreasonably large. Neither would it be the best course for the sons of men who are carrying on a well-established business, and are able to introduce their sons into their already organized business, and push them up rapidly thru all its grades. For a specific business, selected beforehand and entered upon with sure prospect of rapid advancement, the best training is to work up thru all the grades or departments of that particular business. But it is only exceptional youths who have such

opportunities of acquainting themselves thoroly with the details of a complicated business which later they are to direct. The thousands who every year come forward into business life have no access to a family business; but must take their chances of employment and advancement in whatever commercial occupation may become accessible to them. To what business careers, then, might young men carefully trained in an upper commercial school, parallel with a college or scientific school, look forward with confidence? For what careers higher than that of a clerk might they be trained? Remembering that such a school would not provide one uniform curriculum for all its pupils, but permit selection of studies among a great number of important subjects, we may confidently enumerate the occupations of the following classes of persons as appropriate to young men so trained: consuls or government agents in foreign parts, actuaries, public accountants and auditors, managers of departments in a large business, buyers abroad for home use and sellers of home products in foreign parts, State, city, and corporation officials in great variety, merchants engaged in international trade, junior officials in banks and insurance companies, and in transportation companies by sea and by land. In all these cases the instruction received at the commercial school would have to be supplemented by practical experience in an actual industry, office, or trade; but this subsequent requirement would not be at all peculiar to this school. No school of engineering, or of applied chemistry or physics, nowadays undertakes to turn out students fit at graduation for responsible posts. They simply graduate young men well fitted to enter upon the novitiates of these several professions, well fitted, that is, to begin to learn rapidly and well the practical details of an actual business in these several departments. That is precisely what might reasonably be expected of an upper commercial school—that its graduates should be fitted to learn rapidly and well the practical details of any mercantile pursuit in which they might engage.

It would not be the avowed object of such a school to train heads of great houses, or of great corporations, altho it might easily happen that such persons might later be found among

those who had received its training. The qualities which make captains of industry or of commerce are in large measure natural gifts. Such leaders must possess extraordinary energy, good judgment, insight in choosing subordinates, vivid imagination, and firm, upright character; and if I were asked what education would be best for a young man known to possess these gifts, and destined for commercial life, I should say,—give him the best attainable college education, and then let him travel. In attempting to estimate the value of an upper commercial school we should not, however, have such persons as these in mind, for they are highly exceptional. An upper commercial school should serve young men of fair parts by the hundred and the thousand. Nevertheless we shall do well to recognize the fact that international trade, and indeed domestic trade also, is becoming more and more complex, competition is growing keener, the percentage of profits smaller, the transactions larger, and the decisions of the principal necessarily quicker. The successful merchant has to know more to-day than he ever did before, and he has to be more alert and more inventive. Hence his preliminary training should be both more ample and more appropriate than it has been in the past.

I may illustrate the various classes of young men to whom an upper commercial school would be useful by stating briefly some of the uses of foreign languages in business. And first, to buyers. The conditions of many industries and trades have now become international. The raw materials of an industry or commerce may come from various parts of the globe in different qualities; and he is the best buyer who gets his material at the exact spot where it is best produced, or induces the cultivation in many places of that best plant or best animal which has heretofore been developed only in one place. The best cotton for a given fabric must be either bought in the one district where it is raised, or the cotton plants of this district must be spread thruout other cotton-growing countries. If China has a better tea plant than Ceylon, tea must be bought in China, or the better tea plant must be transferred to Ceylon. A chocolate industry established in Boston must seek its cocoa wherever cocoa best grows, and must be always inquiring in

what other parts of the world cocoa can be well produced. This means that good buyers for great industries must often be polyglot men. As for the drummers or runners who solicit business, it is obvious that they need to speak the languages of the people with whom they would trade, and among whom they must study on the spot the existing commercial conditions. The managers of great international industries need to be able to study foreign trade conditions in foreign newspapers and books, to understand the commercial intelligence in a foreign paper, beside knowing all the complications of local currencies, weights, and measures. If an American merchant wishes to introduce his goods into a foreign country, he is not well-advised to send out his price-lists in English and in dollars and cents. Year by year, as ocean carriage becomes securer and quicker, and as business is done more and more all over the world by telegraph and telephone, the individual merchant's need of overcoming the obstruction to commerce caused by the variety of languages spoken and written in the business world becomes more and more pressing. We Americans are at great disadvantage in learning foreign languages. We cannot pass, like Dutch or Belgian boys, in a few hours to a nation speaking French, or German, or English. We have to learn the modern languages by main force, as it were, without the advantage of immersing ourselves on occasion in the foreign speech.

Time does not permit me to dwell upon the specific preparation that might be obtained in an upper commercial school for a variety of interesting callings. I can only mention two callings for which very definite preparation might be made in such a school. The first is the calling of correspondent, traveling or stationary, for the commercial press. This function of the press in maintaining fresh correspondence with all parts of the commercial world is becoming more and more important as international trade spreads and fructifies; and it is obvious that this function, if it is to be well discharged, implies in the correspondent discrimination, insight, linguistic skill, and a thorough understanding of commercial conditions. The other calling I wish to mention is the service of government as consuls, or of intelligence departments conducted by trade organizations.

We have so long regarded consulships as mere political prizes that we have lost sight of their real function as commercial agencies. If this country is to enter seriously into competition for international trade the world over, the very first administrative reform needed in our government is the conversion of consulships into commercial intelligence bureaus. It is obvious, however, that the men who are to discharge this function should have a first-rate training in several of the subjects which I have enumerated as appropriate to an upper commercial school. A government school for consuls would be just as legitimate as a government school for the army or the navy, and would be likely to lead to correspondingly good results. Such a school, however, would imply a life-career for its graduates, just as West Point and Annapolis do.

An upper commercial school should possess the means of keeping its knowledge of commercial conditions absolutely fresh. No salted provisions or canned goods would be useful in its larder. Its teachers would have to live at a commercial center, and breathe every day a wholesome commercial atmosphere. Boards of trade would be better supervisors for such a school than any bureau of education. Men actively engaged in foreign commerce ought to oversee it.

I can hear the objection of the old-fashioned merchant to this whole project of a commercial school. He is saying: Business cannot be learnt in a school; it must be learnt in a counting-room or a real shop. He is saying: The only way to bring up a boy for business is to set him to sweeping out the office and running errands. In answer I can only say that I believe commerce and industry in their higher ranges to be eminently intellectual pursuits; and that I know no other intellectual calling for which a professional school is not now provided. It used to be the fashion to study medicine by cleaning the doctor's horse and buggy, grinding his drugs, and driving round with him to make his calls; and to study law by copying deeds and briefs in a lawyer's office, and reading books taken from the lawyer's little library in the intervals of clerical labor; but the world has now learnt that there is a better way of studying medicine or law—namely, by going to a professional school,

where progressive systematic instruction rapidly developed is to be had. The intending physician or lawyer who does not go to a medical school or a law school condemns himself nowadays to hopeless inferiority, even if he ultimately gets into his chosen profession. To deny that young men may be systematically trained for industry and commerce is to assert that industry and commerce are merely imitative arts to be acquired only by seeing other people do the tricks and then practicing them. The gipsy in Asia Minor makes iron nails one at a time with a hammer on an anvil, just as his ancestors did before him for hundreds of years. I have seen him doing it; but I also observed that his small children were stark naked and that his larger ones had only one garment. In short, he was not making much of a living. Moreover, not one-thousandth part of the nails we use in this country could possibly be made in that way. In industry and commerce all things are become new; and new methods of preparing young men for these occupations must be invented with discriminating foresight, established with prudence, and maintained with liberality.

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II

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION AND ITS RELATION TO EDUCATION ¹

The problems of what is called religious education are part of the problem of education as a whole.

True education, as distinguished from the innumerable false uses of the word, is a unitary process. It knows no mathematically accurate sub-divisions. It admits of no chemical analysis into elements, each of which has a real existence apart from the whole. When stretched upon a dissecting-table education is already dead. Its constituent parts are interesting and, in a way, significant; but when cut out of the whole, they have ceased to live. They are no longer vital, or truly educational. For this reason I hold that while there is and may be a religious training, an intellectual training, a physical training, there is no such thing as religious education, or intellectual education, or physical education. One might as well imagine a triangular or a circular geometry. We do not at once feel the force of this statement, because of our loose, inaccurate, and inexact use of the word education.

In my view education is part of the life-process. It is the adaptation of a person, a self-conscious being, to environment, and the development of capacity in a person to modify or control that environment. The adaptation of a person to his environment is the conservative force in human history. It is the basis of continuity, solidarity. The development in a person of capacity to modify or control his environment gives rise to progress, change, development. Education, therefore, makes for progress on the basis of the present acquisitions of the race. Its soundest ideals forbid, as a matter of course, both neglect of the historic past, and the blind worshiping of

¹ An address delivered in St. Bartholomew's Church, New York, October 14, 1899, under the auspices of the Sunday School Commission of the diocese of New York.

that past as an idol. The importance of the past lies in its lessons for the future. When the past has no such lessons, we forget it as quickly as possible. The survival of a tendency, a belief, or an institution is evidence that it is at least worth studying and that it must be reckoned with. These tendencies, beliefs, and institutions are studied and reckoned with for the purpose of discovering their vital principles and of putting a value upon them. The working out of those vital principles is the future.

In this view, education is first and chiefly a matter of principles. Then, and secondarily, it is a matter of methods. The place, character, and function of religious training are to be settled, and only to be settled, by reference to fundamental educational principles.

The first of these principles, and one of the most far-reaching, is discovered in framing an answer to the question, What is the present environment of a human being? What do we mean by the use of the word environment, and what do we include in it, when we speak of it as that to which education tends to adapt a person? We mean, I think, by the word environment, two things: first, man's physical surroundings, and, second, that vast accretion of knowledge and its results in habit and in conduct, which we call civilization. Natural forces play no small part in adapting human beings to both elements of environment, but the process of education is especially potent as regards adaptation to the second element, civilization. Civilization—man's spiritual environment, all his surroundings which are not directly physical—this it is which has to be conquered, in its elements at least, before one can attain a true education. It is of the highest importance that we make sure that we see clearly all the elements of the knowledge which is at the basis of civilization, and that we give each element its proper place in our educational scheme.

We may approach the analysis of our civilization, or spiritual environment, from many different points of view, and perhaps more than one classification of the results of that analysis may be helpful. The classification which I suggest, and which I have stated elsewhere in detail,² is a fivefold one. It separates

² Butler, *Meaning of education*, p. 17-31.

civilization into man's science, his literature, his art, his institutional life, and his religious beliefs. Into one or another of these divisions may be put each of the results of human aspiration and of human achievement. Education must include knowledge of each of the five elements named, as well as insight into them all and sympathy with them all. To omit any one of them is to cripple education and to make its results at best but partial. A man may be highly instructed and trained in science alone, or in literature, or in art, or in human institutions—man's ethical and political relationships—or in religion, but such a man is not highly educated. He is not educated, strictly speaking, at all, for one or more of the aspects of civilization are shut out from his view, or are apprehended imperfectly only and without true insight.

If this analysis is correct, and I think it is, then religious training is a necessary factor in education and must be given the time, the attention, and the serious, continued treatment which it deserves. That religious training is not at the present time given a place by the side of the study of science, literature, art, or of human institutions, is well recognized. How has this come about? How are the integrity and the completeness of education to be restored?

The separation of religious training from education as a whole is the outgrowth of Protestantism and of democracy. A people united in professing a religion which is ethnic or racial, or a nation giving adhesion to a single creed or to one ecclesiastical organization, always unite religious training with the other elements of education and meet no embarrassment or difficulty in so doing. During the undisputed dominance of the Roman Catholic Church in Europe, education not only included religious training as a matter of course, but it was almost wholly confined to religious training. Theology was the main interest of the Middle Ages, and the theological interest caused religious training to permeate and subordinate whatever instruction was given in other subjects. Music was taught that the church services might be well rendered. Arithmetic and astronomy were most useful in fixing the church festivals and the calendar. With the advent of

the Protestant Reformation all this was changed. Religion was still strenuously insisted upon as a subject of study, but the other subjects of instruction became increasingly independent of it and were gradually accorded a larger share of time and attention for themselves alone.

Protestantism, however, would not by itself have brought about the secularization of the school as it exists to-day in France and in the United States. Democracy and the conviction that the support and control of education by the state is a duty in order that the state and its citizens may be safeguarded, have necessarily forced the secularization of the school. Under the influence of the Protestant Reformation and that of the modern scientific spirit, men broke away from adherence to a single creed or to a single ecclesiastical organization, and formed diverse sects, groups, parties, or churches, differing in many details from each other—the differences, I regret to add, being far more weightily emphasized than the more numerous and more important points of agreement. When the state-supported school came into existence, this state of religious diversity found expression in dissatisfaction with the teaching, under state auspices, of any one form of religious belief. The first step toward the removal of this dissatisfaction was to reduce religious teaching to the lowest possible terms; and these were found in the reading of the Bible, the recitation of the Lord's Prayer, and the singing of a devotional hymn at the opening of the daily school exercise. But even this gave rise to complaint. Discussions arose as to whether a single version of the Bible must be used in these readings, or whether any version, chosen by the reader, might be read. A still more extreme view insisted that the Bible itself was a sectarian book, and that the non-Christian portion of the community, no matter how small numerically, were subjected to violation of their liberties and their rights, when any portion of the public funds was used to present Christian doctrine to school children, even in this merely incidental way. The view that the state-supported schools must refrain absolutely from exerting any religious influence, however small, is one which has found wide favor among the American people.

It has led to more or less sweeping provisions in State constitutions and in statutes against sectarian instruction of any kind at public expense. A judicial decision on this subject of great interest and of far-reaching importance is that rendered in 1890 by the Supreme Court of Wisconsin, in the case of the State *ex rel.* Weiss and others *vs.* the District Board of School District No. 6 of the city of Edgerton.³ In this case the essential question at bar was whether or not the reading of the Bible, in King James' version, in the public schools was sectarian instruction, and as such fell within the scope of the constitutional and statutory prohibitions of such instruction. In an elaborate and careful opinion the court held that reading from the Bible in the schools, altho unaccompanied by any comment on the part of the teacher, is "instruction"; that since the Bible contains numerous doctrinal passages, upon some of which the peculiar creed of almost every religious sect is based, and since such passages may reasonably be understood to inculcate the doctrines predicated upon them, the reading of the Bible is also "sectarian instruction"; that, therefore, the use of the Bible as a text-book in the public schools and the stated reading thereof in such schools, without restriction, "has a tendency to inculcate sectarian ideas," and falls within the prohibition of the constitution and the statutes of Wisconsin.

In this decision there are some very interesting observations on the general question of religious training and the place of the Bible in education. The court says, for example: "The priceless truths of the Bible are best taught to our youth in the church, the Sabbath and parochial schools, the social religious meetings, and above all, in the home circle. There those truths may be explained and enforced, the spiritual welfare of the child guarded and protected, and his spiritual nature directed and cultivated, in accordance with the dictates of the parental conscience." Judge Orton, in a supplementary opinion, adds: "[The schools] are called by those who wish to have not only religion, but their own religion, taught therein 'Godless schools.' They are Godless, and the educational department of the government is Godless, in the same sense that

³ *Wisconsin Supreme Court Reports*, 76: 177-221

the executive, legislative, and administrative departments are Godless. So long as our Constitution remains as it is, no one's religion can be taught in our common schools."

The Supreme Court of Wisconsin has in this decision given forcible, definite expression to the view held by the large majority of American citizens, and has clothed that view with the authority of law. It is in this sense and for substantially the reasons adduced in the decision which I have quoted, that the American public school is secular and that it can give and does give attention to four of the five elements of civilization which I have named—science, literature, art, and institutional life—but none to the fifth element—religion.

In France, the great democratic nation of Europe, the case is quite similar. The famous law of March 28, 1882, excluded religious instruction from the public schools, and put moral and civic training in its stead. M. Ribière, in defending this provision before the senate, used almost the exact language later employed by the Supreme Court of Wisconsin. He held that the elementary school, maintained by the state, open to all, could not be used to teach the doctrines of any sect; that it must be neither religious nor anti-religious, but wholly secular, neutral. M. Paul Bert, who presented the measure to the chamber of deputies, pointed out that the "religious neutrality" of the school was the logical outcome of the principle of the freedom of the individual conscience. "In our eyes," M. Bert continued, "this argument has so great force that, without the prohibition of religious instruction in the schools, compulsory education would appear to us to be not an advantage, but a danger." In order that opportunity should be given to parents to provide religious instruction for their children—this is explicitly stated in the law—the schools are closed one day each week, other than Sunday. In France Thursday, not Saturday as with us, is usually taken as the school holiday.

This, then, is the condition of affairs in the United States and in France as regards religious training in education. The influence first of Protestantism and then of democracy has completely secularized the school. The school, therefore, gives an incomplete education. The religious aspect of civilization

and the place and influence of religion in the life of the individual are excluded from its view. This is the first important fact to be reckoned with.

The second fact is that the whole work of education does not fall upon the school. It cannot do so and ought not to do so. The family, the church, the library, the newspaper, society itself, are all educational institutions as truly as is the school. The school is the most highly organized of them all. Its aims and methods are the most definite. But it is quite untrue to suppose that nothing enters into education save thru the medium of the school-program. Therefore, it does not follow that because the school has become secular, all religious influence and training have necessarily gone out of education. If the school is not distinctly religious, it is even more distinctly not anti-religious. The real question, then, is what are the other educational factors, especially the family and the church, doing to see to it that school instruction is rounded out into education thru their co-operation? It is the duty of the family and the church to take up their share of the educational burden, particularly the specifically religious training, with the same care, the same preparation, and the same zeal which the school gives to the instruction which falls to its lot.

Before coming to the implications of this position, there are one or two suggestions which must receive passing notice. It is said—by a very few it is true—that there is no such thing as religion other than mere superstition, and that religion is not universal in any event, and therefore that the fifth element of our civilization is but an empty name. It is urged, with Petronius, that fear first made the gods, and with Feuerbach that religion is man's most terrible ailment. These contentions seem to me to arise from simple ignorance, alike of history and of human nature. There is a response from the human heart and from the recorded thoughts and deeds of civilized men, based neither on credulity nor on fear, to the description of Hegel, that "religion is for our consciousness that region in which all the enigmas of the world are solved, all the contradictions of deeper-reaching thought have their meaning unveiled, and where the voice of the heart's pain is silenced—

the region of eternal truth, of eternal rest, of eternal peace." If religion may be defined, in Dr. Martineau's words, as "the belief and worship of Supreme Mind and Will, directing the universe and holding moral relations with human life," then civilization is unintelligible without it. Much of the world's literature and art, and the loftiest achievements of men, are, with the religious element withdrawn, and without the motive of religion to explain them, as barren as the desert of Sahara. This proposition hardly needs argument. "The religiosity of man is a part of his psychical being. In the nature and laws of the human mind, in its intellect, sympathies, emotions, and passions, lie the well-springs of all religions, modern or ancient, Christian or heathen. To these we must refer, by these we must explain, whatever errors, falsehood, bigotry, or cruelty have stained man's creeds or cults; to them we must credit whatever truth, beauty, piety, and love have glorified and halloed his long search for the perfect and the eternal. . .

"The fact is that there has not been a single tribe, no matter how rude, known in history or visited by travelers, which has been shown to be destitute of religion under some form." ⁴

But it is also urged that a satisfactory substitute for religious training is to be found in moral and civic instruction. This view is widely held in France and has led to some rather absurd consequences. So scholarly a writer as Mr. Thomas Davidson has just now urged this view upon us Americans.⁵ He is able to do so, however, only by completely identifying religion and philosophy—and (as I think) a bad philosophy at that—in his definition of religion. But, in fact, the field of moral and civic instruction is quite distinct from man's religious life; it belongs to the institutional aspect of civilization. The moral aspect of life has long since come to be closely related to the religious aspect, but nevertheless the two are quite different. A religion, indeed, may be quite immoral in its influences and tendencies. It may lead to cruelty and sensuality, and yet be a religion. There have been not a few such. To confuse

⁴ Brinton, *Religions of primitive peoples*, p. 30.

⁵ "American democracy as a religion," *International journal of ethics*, October, 1899.

religion with ethics is to obscure both. Religion must be apprehended as something distinct and peculiar if it is to be apprehended at all. Matthew Arnold was absolutely wrong when he wrote: "Religion is ethics heightened, enkindled, lit up by feeling; the passage from morality to religion is made when to morality is applied emotion." It is still easier to make clear and enforce the distinction between morality and religion, if we substitute for the general term religion the highest type of all religions, Christianity. It is Christianity, of course, which we have in mind when speaking of religion.

My argument thus far has aimed to make it clear that religious training is an integral part of education, that in this country the State school does not and cannot include religious training in its program, that it must therefore be provided by other agencies and on as high a plane of efficiency as is reached by instruction in other subjects, and that moral and civic training is no possible substitute for religious teaching. The agencies at hand for religious teaching are the family and the church, and in particular, the special school, the Sunday school, maintained by the church for the purposes of religious training.

The Sunday school is in this way brought into a position of great responsibility and importance, for it is, in fact, a necessary part of the whole educational machinery of our time. It must, therefore, be made fully conscious of the principles on which its work rests and of the methods best suited to the attainment of its ends.

The Sunday school must, first of all, understand fully the organization, aims, and methods of the public schools; for it is their ally. It must take into consideration the progress of the instruction there given in secular subjects, and must correlate its own religious instruction with this. It must study the facts of child life and development, and it must base its methods upon the actual needs and capacities of childhood. It must organize its work economically and scientifically, and it must demand of its teachers special and continuous preparation for their work. It must realize that it is first and above all an educational institution and not a proselytizing one, and

that the inherent force of the truth which it teaches is far greater than any attempted bending of that truth to special ends. It must cease to be merely a part of the missionary work of the parish, and become a real factor in the educational work of the community. It must give more time to its work, and the traditional division of time on Sunday will have to be gradually readjusted in order to make a serious Sunday-school session possible. A Saturday session may also be planned for. It must recognize that ordinarily no single parish or congregation can make proper provision for the religious training of all the young people under its care. The very largest parishes and congregations may be able to maintain a fully-equipped Sunday school for children from five to eighteen, but the smaller parishes and congregations in towns and cities must learn to combine for their common good. Each parish or congregation may readily and ought always to maintain a Sunday school of elementary grade, but several adjoining parishes or congregations must combine in order to organize and support a proper course of religious instruction for children of secondary school age and beyond, say from thirteen to eighteen years. In a whole city, unless it be New York or Chicago or Philadelphia, one, or at most two, training classes for Sunday-school teachers should be sufficient. Furthermore, Sunday-school teachers, like all other teachers, should be paid. They should be selected because of competence and special training; they should be led to look upon their work not as philanthropy, not even as missionary work, but as something which is larger than either because it includes both, namely, education. The several Christian bodies, as long as they remain distinct, will naturally maintain their own separate Sunday-school systems; but within any given branch of the Christian church, be it Protestant Episcopal, Presbyterian, Methodist, or other, all of the principles just stated can be applied. Sunday schools so organized could be given the same systematic professional supervision that is provided for the secular schools. Each body of Christians in a given community could have its own Sunday-school board and its own Sunday-school superintendent and staff of assistants. Between some Christian bodies

actual co-operation in Sunday-school instruction ought to be possible. For the proper organization and conduct of this religious instruction there must be a parish or congregational appropriation, or, better far, an endowment fund, to bear the legitimate cost of religious teaching and its systematic professional supervision.

The Sunday-school course of study must be looked after. It is at present—I say it with all respect—too exclusively pious. Religion is much more important in civilization and in life than the Sunday school now teaches. It is more real. It touches other interests at more points. The course of study of the future must reveal these facts and illustrate them. It must be carefully graded and adjusted to the capacity of the child. It must reach out beyond the Bible and the catechism. It must make use of biography, of history, of geography, of literature and of art, to give both breadth and depth and vitality to the truths it teaches and enforces. It must comprehend and reveal the fact that the spiritual life is not apart from the natural life and in antagonism to it, but that the spirit interpenetrates all life and that all life is of the spirit. The problem, then, is not religion *and* education, but religion *in* education.

This, it may be said, is a radical program, a counsel of perfection. Perhaps so. If so, it will provide something to work toward. It will at least bring religious teaching under the influence of those principles and methods which have of late years so vitalized all secular teaching. It will give to it modern instruments, text-books, and illustrative material.

Before dismissing these suggestions as impracticable, because in part unfamiliar, it is well to face the alternative. It is that religious knowledge, and with religious knowledge a good deal else which is worth saving, will go out of the life of the next generation. What appears important enough to the elder generation to be systematically organized, conscientiously studied, and paid for in a terrestrial circulating medium, will deeply impress itself upon the younger. What is put off with a hurried and unsystematic hour on Sunday will not long seem very much worth while.

Already the effects of the present policy are being seen. To the average college student the first book of Milton's *Paradise lost* is an enigma. The epithets, the allusions, even many of the proper names, are unfamiliar. This is due to ignorance of the Bible. It is necessary nowadays to know something about Christianity as well as to be a Christian. The study of history and of geography in connection with the spread and development of Christianity is fascinating. The study of biography in connection with the people of Israel and Old Testament history generally, may be made to put plenty of life into much that is now dead facts to be memorized. For older pupils the study of church history, and of the part played by religious beliefs and religious differences in the history of European dynasties, politics, and literature will make it plain how moving a force religion is and has been in the development of civilization. Such pupils, too, are able to appreciate the Bible as literature if it be put before them from that point of view. It is too often treated as a treasury of texts only, and not as living literature which stands, as literature, by the side of the world's greatest achievements in poetry and in prose.

The heart is the ultimate aim of all religious appeals. But the heart is most easily reached by informing the intellect and by fashioning the will. Knowledge and conduct react on the feelings, and the feelings, the heart (so to speak), are educated and refined thru them. This fact will never be lost sight of by any competent religious teacher, and his purpose will never be to amass in his pupils knowledge about religion alone, but to use such knowledge to direct, elevate, and refine the religious feelings and to guide and form conduct into character.

It is along such lines as these that the development of the Sunday school from a phase of parish mission work into an educational institution of co-ordinate rank with the secularized school, must take place. There are numerous local problems to be solved, no doubt, and not a few practical difficulties to be overcome, but if the ideal be once firmly grasped and the purpose to reach it be formed, the result cannot be doubtful.

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER

III

IMPRESSIONS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION ¹

When I say that the Stars and Stripes float over a territory more than fifty times as large as England and Wales, and that I spent only four weeks in that vast country, you will not be surprised to learn that I did not visit more than four States, and that I did not see the inside of any school in a small town or rural district; and you would deem me guilty of ridiculous rashness if I attempted to describe American education as a whole. When, therefore, I make any assertion which seems somewhat broad, you will please to consider it based not merely on what I saw, but also on what I heard from a number of leading administrators, professors, and teachers, and on what I have read in many official documents; and I would point out that, so long as I limit myself to an account of peculiarities and differences, the brevity of my stay in the United States is no disability; it is, on the contrary, a gain, for I came away before what at first seemed strange began to grow familiar.

Systems of administration—An Englishman who tries to obtain a general view is at once struck with the absence of any central authority. America has nothing corresponding to our Education Department, our Science and Art Department, our Lord President, our vice president, or our code. The action of the Federal Government is confined to the establishment and maintenance of the Bureau of Education at Washington. The head of the bureau is a commissioner, and his function (which he discharges admirably) is the collection and dissemination of statistics respecting the school systems of the Union, and facts respecting various phases of school work all over the world.

In education, as in most other matters, each State is perfectly independent. Each strives in its own way to reach a

¹ A lecture delivered before the Swansea Training College.

common ideal, unmistakably indicated by common political needs. The people are deeply convinced of the truth of the motto carved on one of the façades of Boston Public Library, "The commonwealth requires the education of the people as a safeguard of order and liberty." In all countries ignorance is a disgrace and a burden; in a country where every man has a share in the government it is also a danger. George Washington dwelt on this in his farewell address, when he exhorted his fellow-citizens to promote "as an object of primary importance institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion," he said, "as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened." A free land must choose between the teacher and the demagogue—if the schoolmaster is not paid now there will be the judge and the jailer to pay later.

Each State provides, then, for all its boys and girls, for all its youths and maidens, for all its men and women, not as much instruction as they can afford to pay for, but as much as they can afford to take for nothing. Every State has a complete series of schools consisting of the primary school, the grammar school, and the high school. In each of these the course of instruction, as a rule, covers four years, the usual age for entering the primary school being six. Below the primary school there is, in progressive cities, the kindergarten, and above the high school there are in many cases normal schools, colleges, and universities. In addition to these institutions, maintained by public funds, there are sectarian elementary schools (called "parochial"), and many places of higher education built and endowed by private beneficence.

While all States seek to attain the same end, there is the greatest possible diversity in the methods of organization by which they have sought to attain it. There may be a highly centralized system, as in the State of New York, which has a superintendent, but no board of education; or there may be a highly localized system, as in Massachusetts, which has a board of education, but no superintendent; but the diversity among the State systems is uniformity itself compared with the infinite variety among the systems in the separate cities, coun-

ties, townships, and districts. The township may be the unit, and the authority may be a school committee, as in Massachusetts; a board of education, as in Ohio; or a trustee, as in Indiana; the district, with its committee or board, may be the unit, or it may be a sub-division of a town, as in Connecticut; of a township, as in Michigan; or of a county, as in the Southern States. The board, by whatever name called, may be nominated by the governor, or the mayor, or the judges, or the political "boss"; or it may be elected by the people; it may have all the powers of our school boards; it may have the power of paying but not of appointing or dismissing teachers; it may have the power of paying teachers, but not of fixing their salaries; it may have legislative functions only, the executive duties being discharged on the business side by the school director and on the educational side by the school superintendent.

I will not myself venture to express an opinion on the merits of the American plan, but will quote the opinions of two competent and unbiased observers. M. Buisson, one of the chief officials of the French Department of Public Instruction, who represented his government at the Philadelphia Exhibition in 1876, says that local autonomy carried to such an excess should rather be called anarchy and waste (*gaspillage*); and Dr. Woodrow Wilson, an American writer, says: "Nowhere is there sufficient centralization of control. State superintendents or other central educational authorities are without real administrative powers; county superintendents seldom have much authority; township trustees or committees, as a rule, have little more than a general supervision and power to advise; usually the directors of the smallest area have the greater part of the total of administrative authority, applying their quota of even the State taxes according to their discretion. The result is variety in the qualifications of teachers, variety in the method of their choice, variety in courses of study, variety in general efficiency."²

I would, however, mention that the unbounded liberty given to localities allows a wealthy and ambitious city to make very

² *State and federal governments of the United States*, p. 93.

rapid progress in a very short time; tho, on the other hand, it allows an ignorant or parsimonious board to break every commandment in the educational decalog without reproof or punishment.

Furthermore, this liberty fosters the American tendency to try new ways. Fear of the inspector would prevent an English teacher from effecting a radical change in method; and if inspector and teacher could agree on the desirability of a radical change in the courses of study prescribed by the code, fear of the central authority would deter both from attempting it. Where there are no central authority, no code, and no inspector, and where the man most likely to have views (that is, the superintendent) is the very man who is in a position to insure their adoption, there is nothing except natural conservatism and a dislike of pedagogic vivisection to prevent the making of experiments. In every town I asked for the current course of study, but was almost invariably told that it was under revision. Before visiting one normal school I was warned not to ask for it, because there the courses grew obsolete faster than they could be printed. That changes should be frequently made in the subjects or methods of instruction will appear an evil—to Englishmen; that they should be easy to make is not an unmixed evil. A reform can be accomplished in America sooner than we can convince the government (or the government can convince us) that any reform is needed. In a book published only six years ago⁸ the author points out the faults in the public schools of certain great cities. I visited several of those cities and what I saw proved clearly that most of the faults have already disappeared.

Public interest in education—I have been often asked, “Do you think” (or “Don’t you think”) “American education superior to ours?” To this leading question I answer, “It is different”; but I have no hesitation in affirming the superiority of America to England in one respect, and that is in the interest manifested by the public in education. With us, ratepayers are periodically reminded that there are school boards, and

⁸ Dr. J. M. Rice, *The Public school system of the United States* (New York, 1893).

a certain number will take the trouble to vote for school-board members once in three years, especially if religious or personal issues have been raised. Some thousands of people, again, subscribe to voluntary schools, and some thousands denounce such schools, much of our interest being sectarian rather than educational. I wonder how many English men or English women have ever visited a school unless they were connected with the management of it.

In America I never entered a school without finding other visitors; at the back of a classroom there was generally a row of chairs placed ready for them; in the hall there were often printed directions to them; in several colleges their reception and guidance were the sole duty of one person; and I was told that it is customary for the ladies of a place to organize themselves into visiting committees. Strangers are taken as a matter of course to see a town's public museum, public library, public art gallery, and public schools.

Visits are only one manifestation of interest; generous (sometimes lavish) expenditures are another and more tangible manifestation. Of collective or individual liberality I could cite innumerable instances. The first normal school which I visited (provided by the city of Philadelphia to train teachers for its own schools) cost £80,000 to build and equip. The smaller normal school at Albany cost £51,000, and the mayor of a town of only 40,000 inhabitants told me that their high school cost £50,000. While I was in Chicago the legislature of Illinois made a grant of £60,000 to the State university.

Private benefactions are regarded as a regular source of income of the public schools and are spent not in relieving the taxes but in supplying the secondary needs—libraries, busts, pictures, scientific appliances, and so on. Social economists often criticise severely the monopolies of the American millionaire, but he has one monopoly which excites no unfriendly comment—the monopoly of founding universities, colleges, and institutes. I could not name a twentieth part of the great gifts which have been made to education, but I will quote a few of the gifts of over a million dollars to universities and colleges alone:

Asa Packer, .	Lehigh University, Pa., .	£ 700,000
Johns Hopkins, .	Johns Hopkins Univ., Md., .	700,000
Isaac Rich, .	Boston University, Mass., .	400,000
Leonard Case, .	School of Appl. Sci., Ohio, .	240,000
James Lick, .	University of California, .	330,000
Peter Cooper, .	Cooper Union, N. Y., .	240,000
Ezra Cornell, .	Cornell University, N. Y., .	200,000
The Vanderbilts,	Vanderbilt University, Tenn., .	355,000
Paul Tulane, .	Tulane University, La., .	500,000
W. C. De Pauw,	De Pauw University, Ind., .	300,000
Leland Stanford,	Leland Stanford, Jr., Un., Cal.,	1,000,000 ⁴
John C. Green, .	Princeton College, N. J., .	300,000
Stephen Girard,	Girard College, Pa., .	1,600,000
Jonas G. Clark,	Clark University, Mass., .	400,000 ⁵

The gifts and bequests made to libraries, colleges, galleries, and hospitals, amounted in

1893	to	£5,800,000
1894	to	6,400,000
1895	to	6,560,000
1896	to	5,400,000
1897	to	9,000,000
1898	to	7,600,000

Of the last sum, £700,000 was given by women. I may add that the amount given in 1897 by all the subscribers to all the voluntary schools in England and Wales was £843,875.

The president of a university on whom I called told me that he had within a week received separate visits from two ladies, each anxious to give half a million dollars for the benefit of education, and each desirous of advice as to the best way of spending the money. The printed history of such a young institution as Teachers College, Columbia University, shows gifts of two million dollars, tho it does not show a recent gift of half a million for the extension of the buildings. Mr. Drexel of Philadelphia gave three million dollars to establish the institute called after him, while a similar institute at Brooklyn was the sole gift of Mr. Charles Pratt. When an Englishman grows rich beyond the dreams of avarice, his first ambition appears to be that his name should be lost in a peer-

⁴ Mrs. Stanford has just given £2,000,000 additional to endow this university.

⁵ Boone, *Education in the United States*, p. 206.

age; when an American grows rich, his first ambition appears to be that his name should be perpetuated in a college or other place of higher education.

Lavish expenditure of public or private money is only one of the many signs of the general love of learning. In England, teachers are often held in scant respect. I have known men and women ashamed to say that they were board teachers. In America the teacher of even a primary school is honored. I am afraid that it will be long before an English school board passes a resolution like that (not the only one of the kind) which I extract from the latest report of the Cambridge superintendent: "Voted that the new school, —, be named 'the Roberts School' in honor of Benjamin W. Roberts, who for nearly fifty years has been a faithful and successful teacher in Cambridge." While I was in New York the promotion of an assistant to be head-mistress was made the occasion of a public ceremony, reported in the newspapers—I will not say as fully as a prize fight, but quite as fully as the day's proceedings of the State legislature, unless they happened to border on a prize fight. The schoolroom was gayly decorated, there was a large audience, and the teacher was formally installed by the chairman of the board—not the board of a village, but of the second largest city in the world. I do not suppose that he knew her from Eve (except by the fashion of her dress). It was the office and not the woman that he was honoring.

We have all heard that politics in the States are corrupt, and that the infection has spread to the schools. Politics, English and American, are alike outside my province; but I made some inquiries about corruption in school administration. When I was in Samaria I was told that there might be a little in Jerusalem, and in Jerusalem I was told that such a thing had been heard of in Jericho. I believe that party considerations do sometimes influence a governor or mayor in nominating members of school boards, and members of school boards in appointing teachers; but I will not begin to throw stones so long as I live in a crystal palace where discretion in the choice of relatives or friends and virtue in the choice of church or chapel are sometimes better titles to promotion than professional

merit. And I have no fear for the future of American education. Let the politicians once threaten any serious injury to it, and the nation will rise in its might and crush them. People who have given so many indisputable proofs of the high esteem in which they hold the public school will not long suffer it to be the perquisite of a party "boss."

The superintendent—I have once or twice referred incidentally to the superintendent of schools, and as he is the chief executive officer I must say something about him. We have nothing like him. His manifold duties are discharged in this country by the code maker, the government and school-board inspectors, the school-board clerk, and the training college professor. The ideal superintendent draws up the courses of study for schools of all grades, appoints the teachers, watches them at their work, holds frequent conferences with them, lectures them on the principles and methods of education, explains the ideas embodied in his courses, points out the common faults in their lessons, and, above all, tries to inspire them with his own enthusiasm. It is true everywhere that as is the teacher so is the school; in America it is also true that as is the superintendent so is the teacher. The superintendent has more influence within his own domain than our government inspector has within his. The inspector has oversight only of elementary schools, the superintendent controls schools of all grades; the inspector may be out of sympathy with the code that he administers, the superintendent draws up his own; the superintendent is (in theory, at any rate) an expert teacher; and his business is not to find out at the end of the year that the results are bad, but to find out early in the year that they are likely to be bad, and to remove the causes. Till recently the duty of an inspector was to weigh the crop and assess its value; the duty of a superintendent is to advise in the choice of implements and seed, and show how the various agricultural operations may be performed with most ease and profit.

There must be thousands of superintendents in the Union; I had interviews with only six, and I cannot therefore say how far the real corresponds with the ideal. Those whom I met were all men of liberal culture, broad views, and strong char-

acter, all men of intellectual eminence, all leaders of thought in their own department. I have reason to believe that they were fair types of the superintendent of the States and of the great cities; and I have equal reason to believe that in townships and districts, where schools are so few that the superintendent is employed for only part of his time and his salary is small, he is often not worth even his small salary.

It is obvious that a superintendent can render incalculable service to the schools under his care, provided he be the proper person; but, curiously enough, the system seems to be weakest just where the getting and the keeping of the proper person are concerned. He is nominated sometimes by the State governor, sometimes by the State legislature, sometimes by the State board of education, and sometimes by the local board; he is often elected by the people. The method of appointment by nomination must be good if the nominator is capable and conscientious. The possible effects of the other method I will illustrate by the words of an American writer who, speaking of the city of Buffalo, says: "As for the superintendent, he is elected directly by the people, and must therefore almost necessarily be a politician. And when we consider that the superintendent has the sole power to appoint teachers it becomes clear that political influence is liable to play a very important part in their appointment."⁶ The language of the Committee of Twelve, a body of the highest authority, is hardly less strong: "In the majority of States the county superintendents are elected by the people of the county without any regard to the preparation or qualifications they may have for the work. Very few States require the superintendent to have any special qualifications, and in many instances supervisors are put in charge of teachers who know more about teaching than they do, and are required to hold examinations that they themselves could not pass."⁷

And when the services of a good superintendent have been obtained there is no guarantee (I had almost said "there is no probability") that they will be retained. The plan of appoint-

⁶ Rice, *The Public school system of the United States*, p. 76.

⁷ *Report of the Committee of Twelve on rural schools*, p. 62.

ing for a short period is almost universal. "The legal term of office in Massachusetts and Rhode Island is one year. In Connecticut it is at the pleasure of the State board. In twenty States the term of office is two years, in four States three years, in seventeen States four years, but in no State does it exceed four years. The average length of the term of State superintendent is two years and ten months."⁸ And what is true of the State superintendents is equally true of all the others. A good man may, at the end of his first term, be appointed for a second, but I was told that his chances of re-appointment were often in inverse proportion to his efficiency. If after being appointed thru the influence of a political party he has discharged his duties with greater regard to the interests of the schools than the interests of the party, it is more than possible that he will have to make way for someone willing to take out of the fire the chestnuts of the political "boss." One superintendent, who had been recently appointed by the board of a city notorious for its backwardness in education, informed me that if the question of his re-appointment came before the board now barely a quarter of the members would vote for him: he had already disgusted the remaining three-quarters by his ardor for reform.

If the superintendents were all as highly qualified as the best of them are; if they all had the great powers which many of the State and city superintendents have; and if they had reasonable security of tenure, the system would produce only the most beneficial results, and a modified form of it might with advantage be introduced into this country.

Teachers—From the man who supervises the teaching I pass to the man who does it—or, rather, to the woman, for most of the teachers are women—in fact, the pronoun used for the generic teacher is always *she*. I have not the figures for the whole country, but from a report of the commissioner I learn that, of the 74,117 teachers employed in cities containing over eight thousand inhabitants, 68,344 (or ninety-two per cent.) are women. For the sake of comparison I may add that, of the 56,778 certificated teachers employed in our elementary

⁸ *Report of the Committee of Twelve on rural schools*, p. 56.

schools, 34,663 (or sixty-one per cent.) are women. There was a man at the head of every normal school, every high school, and nearly every elementary school that I visited; but the assistants were almost exclusively women, except in the normal and the high schools.

In England the masters of secondary schools have, as a rule, undergone no professional preparation, and many think so well of themselves or so ill of their work that they do not deem any preparation necessary. The mistresses of secondary schools have a poorer estimate of themselves or a better estimate of their work. Most of them admit the necessity of training and the proportion of trained grows year by year. Of the masters in our elementary schools twenty-nine per cent. are not college-trained, and of the mistresses fifty-two per cent.; but trained or untrained all have been pupil-teachers. Whenever I spoke in America of pupil-teachers I had to explain the meaning of the term, and when I had explained it I had some trouble in removing the doubts as to our national sanity. If we had never had a pupil-teacher no one would dream of creating him now; but for my part, as he exists, I would rather see him improved than abolished. I would give him something of a liberal education; I would have him serve only in a school where the head-teacher has leisure and ability to instruct him in his art; and I would not commit a class of even ten to his sole charge. I know that the system is utterly illogical, but I also know that it has produced a race of teachers whose technical skill and power of managing large classes are unexcelled.

In America the need of training is universally admitted, and I do not think the time is very far distant when training will be an essential qualification for a diploma. I think that it has become an almost essential qualification for employment in a high school or by a progressive board. The majority of untrained teachers are employed in rural schools. These are often very small—in 1870 an old State like New York had fifteen hundred school districts with an average attendance of less than ten pupils each. Furthermore, the school year is very short. In many parts of the Union it is less than one hundred days (our minimum is two hundred days). New

York, with a school year of 160 days, is considered to have reached the ideal.⁹ It is no wonder therefore that the teachers should not go to the trouble and expense of preparing themselves for occupation which is both poorly paid and intermittent, and which they probably hope to quit very soon.

The growing demand for trained teachers is seen in the growing supply of means of training. In two years the number of normal students was raised from 80,538 to 89,934. It must not be supposed that these were all being educated in institutions resembling our training colleges; a quarter of them were under instruction in high schools, colleges, or universities having pedagogic courses.

The number of normal schools reported in 1896-97 was 362; namely, 164 public and 198 private. [In the technology of American education "public" means provided and maintained by a State or local authority, while "private" is merely its negative, and would be applied alike to the University of Oxford and a dame school.] The fact that some of the most efficient normal schools are established by private enterprise and conducted for profit is an unmistakable indication of the demand for training.

Our government training colleges are all of one kind; American normal schools, public and private alike, are of the most bewildering variety. I visited only nine, but among that small number there were six distinct types. A candidate may be admitted because he (or rather she) wishes to be trained, or because she has passed an entrance examination, or is a high-school graduate, or is a college graduate; she may be admitted for one year, for two years, for three or for four years; she may spend the time chiefly in improving her general culture, or she may spend it entirely in the study of education; her practice may be limited to a dozen criticism lessons, or she may spend half of every day or half of a school year in teaching. Where there is so much diversity a normal school will often have a distinctive character. For instance, Teachers College, Columbia University (which is immeasurably superior to anything we have in this country), makes a special feature of training

⁹ Millar, *The School system of the State of New York*, p. 52.

college professors, superintendents, and secondary teachers; several schools train kindergartners only; Oswego and Worcester are distinguished for child-study.

Numerous as they are, the normal schools cannot supply the number of new teachers required; still less can they give a complete training to the old teachers already at work. Yet they can do something by means of their summer schools and extension classes. When I attended a lecture on psychology by Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, at Columbia University, I was surprised to see a large hall crowded; and still more surprised to see so many middle-aged men and women present. On inquiry I learnt that they were not regular students of the college, but teachers in the New York schools, attending extension classes after school hours, and that there were over twelve hundred such students on the books.

The normal schools are supplemented in many ways—by teachers' associations, which meet to discuss not professional politics, but the science and art of teaching; by reading circles; by training classes, and, above all, by teachers' institutes.

The training classes are attached to certain good schools, which undertake to furnish professors well qualified to give inexperienced teachers instruction in the art of teaching. In the State of New York—and, I presume, elsewhere—a subsidy is made toward the cost. The classes must contain from ten to twenty-five students, and must continue in session for not less than sixteen weeks.¹⁰ The institutes are really temporary normal schools. They are held once or twice a year, and last about a week. They are conducted by paid experts, and all the teachers of a district are compelled to attend them.

Many of our adult teachers show great zeal in improving their scholastic attainments, but I am afraid that there is too great a tendency among some of them to look upon their certificates as visible proof that they have nothing more to learn about teaching. This tendency, combined with our national conservatism, makes us slow to admit new ideas. Froebel and Herbart having been dead for less than sixty years, it is too soon to expect a general knowledge of their principles in this

¹⁰ Millar, *The School system of the State of New York*, p. 98.

country. Froebel's views are not always sound; our knowledge of them is sometimes derived from his disciples and not from himself; and his meaning is obscured by his incapacity to express it clearly and by his inherited mysticism; but he enunciated one truth of infinitely more value than all his gifts and games and songs—the grand truth that the task of the educator is the training of the self-activity of the child. Herbart again set forth a system of psychology which may be open to question, but he also set forth the doctrine of apperception, which is the key to all economical and successful instruction. Whether he originated the doctrine of correlation of studies which maps out clearly the whole course of a child's education; whether the doctrine of concentration of interest which he undoubtedly did originate is true or helpful I need not discuss. My point is that his theories, as well as Froebel's, have become part of the common stock of pedagogic thought in America to a far greater extent than they have in England.

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(To be concluded)

IV

THE CONSTITUTIONALITY OF A NATIONAL UNIVERSITY¹

The chairman of the committee to investigate the project for a national university has requested me to prepare a memorandum upon the constitutional aspects of the plan for a national university, to be founded and supported by the Federal Government in the city of Washington.

It is fitting that the question of the constitutionality of such an enterprise should be taken up and discussed first of all. For if upon examination it is the opinion of this committee that such a scheme would be unconstitutional our work would be very simple and limited to the formulation of one of two propositions. We should either recommend to the national council that, inasmuch as the Federal Government has received no authority to establish and maintain a national university the national council should not lend its support to an attempt to carry out the undertaking; or, in case we become further convinced that such an institution would be desirable, our recommendation would be to the effect that the national council should assist in securing such an amendment to the Constitution as would enable the Federal Government to carry thru the enterprise.

Probably the best way to present the subject to this committee is to give a brief account of the history of this project, so far as it has involved the discussion of constitutional questions. All parties in the United States agree that the Federal Government is one of limited and delegated powers; that it is in no sense a depository of residual authority, and that it can have no power to establish and maintain a national university unless this power is given to it in the Constitution of the

¹ A report submitted at Washington, November 2, 1899, to the committee to investigate the project for a National University, appointed by the Council of Education, National Educational Association.

United States. All parties agree that the burden of proof that the proposed measure is constitutional rests upon the party urging the Federal Government to adopt it.

We cannot accept the view, therefore, that such action would be constitutional unless we become convinced that the authority to take it is vested in the Federal Government by the Constitution of the United States. It is plain that no such authority is vested in express terms; as there is no mention made in the body of the Constitution of the subject of a national university, nor indeed of education at all, either elementary, secondary, or higher.

If this power has been vested in the Federal Government by the Constitution, it must, therefore, be by virtue of some implication contained in the powers which are expressly granted, or because it constitutes an essential or necessary part of some authority which is specifically enumerated, or because it is necessarily bound up in the very idea of a government, such as that organized under the Constitution. It must be, to use technical language, either an implied, a resulting, or an implicit power. Under which of these heads such an authority may be placed, if we shall find it to be actually conferred, will appear perhaps most plainly, as suggested above, from an examination of the history of the constitutional discussions relating to this subject.

There seems to have been a general notion abroad in the country during the period preceding the drafting and adoption of the Federal Constitution that the new federal authority would establish and maintain a national university at its seat of government. The current literature of the time contains many hints and suggestions to this effect, and there seems to have been a generally felt need at that time of some such central and adequately endowed institution in order to supplement the existing educational facilities of the country.

In the constitutional convention itself the project appeared on several different occasions. In Charles Pinckney's draft of the Federal Constitution submitted to the convention May 29, 1787, a clause was contained in the enumeration of the powers of the new government giving to the Congress the authority

"to establish a national university."² In James Madison's proposition to confer additional powers upon the Congress, made August 18, 1787, a similar clause was contained.³

When the report of the committee on revision came up for discussion on September 14, Madison and Pinckney united in the motion to insert in the amended and revised draft, from which had been dropped their former recommendations, a clause conferring upon the Congress authority to establish a national university.⁴

Wilson supported the motion, Gouverneur Morris opposed it on the ground that such a clause was unnecessary since the power proposed was already included in the grant of exclusive jurisdiction over the seat of government. Four States then voted to insert the clause, six voted against such insertion, and one State was divided.

The proposition to add this authority to the list of enumerated powers in the Constitution was thus rejected, but there was nothing in the minutes of the convention going to show the grounds upon which this rejection was made. Whether it was because the members of the convention were opposed to conferring such an authority upon the Congress, or because they thought that it had been conferred by some other clause, and, therefore, did not need specific enumeration, does not appear.

It is interesting to note, however, that so far as the records of the convention show, there was no objection to the principle of the proposition; no one hinted that it was not desirable to vest such a power in the Federal Government, or that such an institution was not necessary or expedient.

The current discussion of the time contains many traces that the view of Gouverneur Morris expressed in the constitutional convention was correct; namely, that the Federal Government had received authority by other clauses than the one proposed to exercise such a function. There seems to have been a sort

² *Journal of the Federal Convention*, kept by James Madison, edited by E. H. Scott, Chicago, p. 66.

³ *Journal of the Federal Convention*, etc., p. 550.

⁴ *Journal of the Federal Convention*, etc., p. 727.

of general agreement that the new government had the power to establish such an institution if it desired, and there were many who urged the desirability of such an institution upon the attention of Congress and the country.

Washington himself, to whom this project was especially dear, and to whom it grew ever more precious as he approached his end, evidently took it for granted that the authority to establish such an institution had been conferred upon the Federal Government by the Constitution. In his second annual message, dated January 8, 1790, Washington declared that there was nothing which better deserved the patronage of Congress than the promotion of science and literature. He adds, "Whether this desirable object will best be promoted by affording aids to seminaries of learning or by any other expedients will be well worthy of a place in the deliberations of the legislature."⁵

The Senate, in answer to this address, seemed to accept the view that the Federal Government had the function of promoting literature and science,⁶ as did the House in its response to the same address.

By virtue⁷ of the authority conferred upon Washington to set aside certain sites for the needed public buildings in the new District of Columbia, he assigned a site of nearly twenty acres for a national university. And in his message to Congress, dated December 7, 1796, he urged in strong terms the establishment of a national university. The Senate, in its response, seems to agree that such a step would be wise.

At the same Congress the Federal commissioners appointed to lay out the city of Washington made a report to Congress, in which they urged very strongly the establishment of a national university in the city of Washington, in the District of Columbia, in accordance with Washington's proposal.

That portion of Washington's annual message referring to this subject and the report of the Federal commissioners upon the same topic, was referred to a select committee, of which

⁵ *Annals of Congress*, 1st Congress, vol. i, p. 933.

⁶ *Annals*, etc., p. 936.

⁷ *Annals*, etc., p. 1052.

James Madison was the chairman. This committee made a report on December 21, 1796, to the following effect:

Resolved, That it is expedient at present, that authority should be given as prayed for by said memorial to proper persons to receive and hold in trust pecuniary donations in aid of the appropriations already made toward the establishment of a university within the District of Columbia."⁸

It will be seen from this that the Federal commissioners, while in favor of establishing a national university endowed and supported by the national Government, did not feel that it was entirely wise to make such a recommendation, and proposed, therefore, simply that a charter of incorporation be granted to certain trustees to accept gifts or donations from private parties in furtherance of this purpose.

It will be noted also that this resolution speaks of appropriations already made toward such a university, referring doubtless to the lands set aside by the direction of the President for this purpose.

This recommendation of Madison's committee was debated at some length in the House. The friends of the motion urged that they were not asking the approval of the House for a motion looking toward the establishment and maintenance of a national university at Federal expense, but that they were simply asking for the incorporation of a board of trustees who might accept any money which should be given for this purpose. The opponents of the motion emphasized the fact that this would be a mere entering wedge for the establishment of an institution to be supported from the Federal treasury. Madison himself declared that he would not vote for the report except with the understanding that the institution was not to become a burden on the nation.

It will be seen that this special proposition, therefore, was not for a national university in the sense in which we are using that term in our discussion, but merely for the establishment of an institution under the auspices of the Government, to be supported by private contributions.

Even so, the opposition to the proposition was so great that,

⁸ *American state papers*, Miscellaneous, vol. i, No. 91, p. 153.

after a debate of some two days, action was finally postponed by a majority of one, ostensibly to find out whether the State of Maryland might not grant this charter of incorporation instead of the Federal Government, and the motion was not again brought up.

There is no indication in the record of this debate that such a proposition was considered unconstitutional, at least by any great number of the members. The whole course of the debate went to show that such an institution, owing to the conditions of the time, difficulty of transportation, etc., would be largely a local and not a truly national enterprise; or went to show that education was something which the States ought to look after themselves, and in the support of which they should not be encouraged to expect aid from the national Government.

This action did not deter Washington from still insisting, wherever it was possible, upon the desirability of such an institution, nor from his giving a considerable sum for its endowment.

In the following years, the intense excitement over international relations, the struggle over the Alien and Sedition laws, etc., gave rise to keen discussions of constitutional authority, ending with the debates over the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions, in which the whole question of the powers of the national Government over against those of the States was canvassed as never before, and, indeed, but as few times since in the history of the country.

When Jefferson became President of the United States he urged, in his message of December 2, 1806, that the income from taxes should be rather applied to the great purpose of public education, roads, rivers, canals, etc., than to the reduction of duties on imports and other similar burdens. He adds: "I suppose an amendment to the Constitution necessary, because the objects now mentioned are not among those enumerated in the Constitution." From which it would appear that, in his opinion, the Federal Government did not have authority to establish a national university.

In his message of November 8, 1808, he says, speaking of the surplus funds in the United States treasury: "Shall the

revenue be reduced, or shall it not rather be appropriated to the improvements of roads and canals, rivers, education, and other foundations of prosperity of the Union under the powers which Congress may already possess, or such amendment to the Constitution as may be approved by the States." It will be remembered, however, that while Jefferson thought that Louisiana could not be purchased, and that money could not be appropriated for internal improvements under the Constitution, yet he not only negotiated the Louisiana purchase, and signed the bill to appropriate money in accordance therewith, but that he also, on March 29, 1806, approved the first Cumberland Road Bill, which involved the expenditure of money from the United States treasury for the purpose of carrying out internal improvements within the States.

Madison, in his message of December 5, 1810, recommends "the establishment of a seminary of learning instituted by the national legislature within the limits of their exclusive jurisdiction, the expense of which might be defrayed out of the vacant grounds which have accrued to the nation within its limits." In other words, he recommends a national university to be supported, not by appropriations from the Federal treasury, nor by appropriations from the sale of public lands in general belonging to the Government, but by the sale of lands belonging to the Government situated within the District of Columbia.

The committee to whom this part of the President's message was intrusted in the House of Representatives declared in their report that, while Congress might incorporate a private seminary of learning for the benefit of the people of the District of Columbia, it had no authority to appropriate money from the Federal treasury for its support. "The erection," they declared, "of a university upon the enlarged and magnificent plan which would become the nation is not within the powers confided to Congress." As to Madison's suggestion about the proceeds of vacant lands, they did not believe that such proceeds would amount to enough to make it worth while to start anything upon that basis, even if there were no constitutional impediments. They recommended that no action be

taken in regard to the President's proposition relating to a national university.⁹

Madison, however, repeated his recommendation of 1810 in his message of December 5, 1815. A committee was appointed by the House to consider this recommendation, and reported a bill February 20, 1816, for establishing a national university based upon Federal appropriations. The attempt was made to call it up on April 12, but the House then refused to consider it, and on April 27 the bill was indefinitely postponed.

Madison, not deterred by the fate of his previous recommendations, urged this subject in his message of December 3, 1816, upon the attention of Congress in still stronger terms than in his previous message:

"The importance which I have attached to the establishment of a national university within the District of Columbia on the scale and for objects worthy of the American nation induces me to renew my recommendations of it to the favorable consideration of Congress."

The special committee to which this recommendation was referred made a lengthy report to the House December 11, 1816. It took the ground that "the means were ample, the end desirable, and the object fairly within the legislative powers of Congress," and, consequently, that a national university should be established, and in accordance with that recommendation it reported a bill to establish a university upon the basis of Federal appropriations.¹⁰

Mr. Atherton proposed, on the next day, December 12, 1816, an amendment to the Constitution conferring on Congress the authority to establish a national university; but the House refused to consider it by a vote of 54 to 56.

Mr. Wilde attempted to have the report of this committee considered by the House, but, failing repeatedly, asked finally for the discharge of the committee on March 3, 1817.

President Monroe, in his first message, December 2, 1817, recommended that Congress propose an amendment to the

⁹ *Annals of Congress*, XI. Congress, 3d Session, p. 79, February 18, 1818.

¹⁰ *Annals of Congress*, XVI. Congress, 2d Session, p. 258.

Constitution whereby it should be authorized to institute seminaries of learning. From which it would appear that, in his opinion, the Constitution conferred no such authority upon the Federal Government.

It was in the same message, however, that he expressed the same opinion in regard to the power of the Federal Government to appropriate money for the carrying out of internal improvements, holding that no such authority existed, and that, before such a policy could be adopted, it would be necessary to obtain an amendment to the Constitution authorizing such action.

But President Monroe experienced a change of view on this question, and his message to Congress on internal improvements, submitted May 4, 1822, in connection with his veto of the Cumberland Road Bill, marked an epoch in the constitutional history of the United States, as it gave us what has turned out to be an authoritative exposition of the meaning of one of the important clauses in the Constitution, and that in a sense different to that adhered to previously by Monroe himself, and by Madison and by Jefferson, and different to that underlying the general theory of the policy of the government from its foundation; in harmony, on the other hand, with the views of Hamilton and Washington, and with the action of Jefferson himself, of Madison and of the other Presidents—an exposition which was accepted by John Quincy Adams, by Andrew Jackson, and, generally speaking, accepted and acted upon by every succeeding President. This theory of constitutional interpretation is of especial importance to the subject in hand, since, if it be correct, there can be no doubt whatever of the constitutionality of Federal appropriations to a national university.

In his message ¹¹ Monroe declares that his own opinion as to the power of the Federal Government over appropriations had undergone a profound change, and whereas he had formerly held that the Federal Government might not appropriate money for any other purposes than those specifically enumerated in the Constitution, he had now come to believe that the Federal Constitution in the first clause of Section 8 of the first article

¹¹ Compare *Annals of Congress*, XVII. Congress, 1st Session, vol. ii, p. 1810.

conferred upon the Federal Government "an unlimited power to raise money, and that in its appropriation Congress has a discretionary power restricted only by the duty to appropriate it for the purposes of common defense, and of general, not local, national, nor State benefit." In other words, that when the Constitution of the United States vests in Congress the power to lay and collect taxes to provide for the common defense and general welfare, it gives to that body power to raise any sum of money which it chooses, and to devote it to any purpose which in its judgment will promote the general welfare, subject to the limitation that it should not be the general, not the individual, for the national, not local, benefit.

In this message Monroe accepted the doctrine laid down by Alexander Hamilton in his celebrated report on manufactures made to Washington in 1791, "That there seems no room for doubt that whatever concerns the general interests of learning and agriculture, manufactures, and of commerce are within the sphere of the national council so far as regards the application of money."

This is the only theory upon which all of the items in any of the general appropriation bills passed by the Federal Government from the time of Washington to that of McKinley can be justified.

It is the only theory on which the actions of Jefferson, as distinct from his pronouncements, can find a constitutional basis.

As said above, this doctrine was subsequently accepted, tho under protest, by Andrew Jackson, having been fully adopted and acted upon by his predecessor, John Quincy Adams.

This theory of the power of Congress over appropriations has been accepted by the great commentators on the Constitution almost without exception.

Story raises the issue distinctly by asking the question: "May Congress appropriate money for any other purposes than those pointed out in the enumeration of powers?" His answer was, yes, and based upon the following three considerations:

First, on the language contained in the first clause of the

eighth section of the first article, which cannot receive any reasonable interpretation except in accordance with this view,

Second, on the nature of the power conferred, rendering it highly expedient that such a power should be given to the Federal Government, and indeed making it almost impossible for anyone to organize and administer an efficient central government without such authority.

Third, on account of the early, constant, and decided maintenance of it by the Government and its functionaries, as well as by many of our ablest statesmen from the very commencement of the Constitution.¹²

He then declares (par. 1274) that Congress may appropriate to any purpose which is for the common defense and general welfare.

This view was followed by Kent in his great commentaries.¹³

One of the most recent and one of the greatest commentators on the Constitution, Judge Hare, takes the same view.¹⁴ He calls attention to a very interesting feature of this whole discussion; namely, that, owing to the principles of our constitutional law, it is almost impossible for the courts of the United States to decide this question, since it is primarily a question for the legislature and not for the courts. He speaks of Monroe's recantation, contained in the message above referred to (p. 245), and says that it was like that of Madison's of the earlier date, "a virtual adoption of the Hamiltonian theory, that the power of the Congress over the treasury is in effect absolute as to the appropriation of money for any object which in their judgment will conduce to the defense of the country or promote its welfare. Such, in fact, has been the practice since the government went into operation, and the right can scarcely be questioned in the face of a usage which will soon extend thru an entire century."

It would thus seem to be as well established as any constitutional doctrine can be that the Federal Government of the

¹² Story: *Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States*. Second edition, Boston, 1851. Paragraph 977.

¹³ *Commentaries on American law*; by James Kent, Boston, 1884, 13th edition, vol. i, p. 268.

¹⁴ *American constitutional law*, J. Clark Hare, 1899, 2 vols.

United States may appropriate money to any amount for any object which in its judgment will conduce to the *common* defense, and will promote the *general* welfare.

Surely under this head may be brought appropriations for a national university at the seat of government. The argument has sometimes also been advanced that the Federal Government might establish a national university under the authority given in the preamble, which declares that one of the purposes of ordaining the Constitution of the United States was the promotion of the general welfare. This argument deserves little attention, and would not be mentioned by your reporter if it were not that one finds it oftentimes urged in support of this and other measures in the current literature of the time. Such an argument certainly deserves little consideration. In the first place the preamble is a mere introduction to the Constitution and does not confer any authority whatever. It simply enumerates certain purposes for which the powers subsequently conferred by the Constitution were vested in the Federal Government. In the second place such an argument leads to a *reductio ad absurdum*, since if the Federal Government receives from the preamble authority to promote the general welfare in any way which may seem to it good, the whole idea of a limited or delegated government becomes baseless. The other provisions of the Constitution which vest authority, which enumerate powers, are idle and meaningless.

Two other arguments in favor of the constitutionality of a national university deserve, however, a brief mention.

It is claimed, namely, that the Federal Government has received power by the Constitution to establish and maintain a civil service, exactly as it has authority to establish and maintain a military and naval service, and that it has the implied authority to establish a civil service academy exactly as it has established a military and a naval academy; and if it has authority to do all this, it alone, under the generally accepted principles of constitutional interpretation, is to be the judge of what is an adequate civil service academy and what is necessary to the establishment and equipment of such an institution.

Now a proper training of men for the civil service, at least

for all the higher branches of the civil service, is a training in the sciences underlying the functions of such positions, and the best training in such sciences can be afforded in the modern world thru the medium of a properly equipped and properly managed university.

This is recognized, for example, in Germany, where the universities are declared by law to be primarily academies for the preparation of men for the civil service of the country, and to a smaller degree in England, where attendance at the university is a prescribed condition for admission to certain examinations in the civil service department.

There is certainly much cogency in this argument, and it is difficult to refute it by any other argument than would overthrow the legitimacy of the academies which the Government has already established.

The view above referred to, which was expressed in the constitutional convention by Gouverneur Morris, that the power to establish a national university at the seat of government is included in the grant of exclusive jurisdiction over the District of Columbia, would seem to be also a valid one.

If Congress by the grant of power over the territories may establish in those districts systems of education from the primary school up to and thru the university, in districts which are being prepared for later admission as States, surely it may exercise the same authority in the District of Columbia, over which its jurisdiction in every respect whatever has been made absolute, subject to the restrictions of the Constitution, especially since this district cannot be regarded as in any sense on the road to admission as a State, and, if it is to have proper facilities for higher education at all, must obtain them from Congress.

And if the Federal Government may establish a university as the head of the school system in the District of Columbia there is no constitutional limit upon the manner in which that institution shall be organized; upon the amount of money which it may spend in its administration, or upon the purpose which such an institution may be made to serve.

Altho the preceding considerations seem to have covered

the ground in a general way, there is perhaps one other aspect of the case, which, owing to its immediate bearing upon the special problem before us, should not be overlooked. That is the argument, that the actual policy of the Federal Government in regard to education cannot be justified constitutionally upon any other ground than would also justify the establishment of a national university.

The Federal Government has considered education, almost from the first hour of its organization, as a subject with which it had to do, and whose promotion should be near its heart. The ordinance of 1787 bound the Congress to promote the interests of education in the territory northwest of the Ohio River. And when this ordinance was re-enacted after the establishment of the Constitution the same duty was taken upon itself by the Congress. In pursuance of this policy it appropriated from the public lands within the possession of the Government large tracts for the endowment of elementary and higher education. It is true that this referred at first only to the territory northwest of the Ohio River, but it was evident at a very early day that the people of the United States would not be content with the encouragement of education merely in the newer portions of the United States. The older States claimed, and with much justice, that all the States under the Constitution were entitled to the same treatment, and that if the newer States received assistance in the development of their education from national resources, the older States were entitled to the same advantage. This argument seemed to be especially good, since the public domain out of which this endowment was made had been acquired by the common sacrifices of the older as well as the newer States. Consequently, we find a steady tendency on the part of the national Government to make grants of land for the promotion of education within the States.

This has become such a well-organized policy on the part of the Government that every decade, and, one may say, almost every year since the opening of the century, has seen considerable additions to the educational funds of the States from this source.

The principle received, however, a very clear recognition in the celebrated Land Grant Act of 1862, by which to each State in the Union were granted thirty thousand acres of land for each senator and representative in the Congress for the endowment of colleges for instruction in agriculture and the mechanic arts.

But President Monroe, in the celebrated message previously referred to, expressed a truth which is coming to be recognized and acted upon more fully with every passing decade, that no distinction can be taken between the appropriation of money raised by the sale of public lands, and of that which arises from taxes, duties, imposts, and excises. And so the Federal Government, not content with granting lands by the act of March 2, 1887, granted the sum of fifteen thousand dollars per year from the proceeds of the sale of public lands to each State and Territory for the establishment of agricultural experiment stations.

This policy was further followed in the Act of August 30, 1890, for the further endowment of the land grant colleges by which the sum of fifteen thousand dollars per year, to be increased by an addition of one thousand dollars more per year until the sum amounted to twenty-five thousand dollars per year for each State and Territory, was voted by the Congress of the United States out of the proceeds of the sale of public lands. If the Congress of the United States may appropriate two millions of dollars a year in cash from the Federal treasury for the support of higher institutions in forty-five States in the Union, surely it may appropriate a similar or greater amount for the support of a single institution in the District of Columbia.

In view of the facts set forth in the above memorandum it is the opinion of your reporter that there is a distinct grant in the Constitution of the United States to the Federal Government of the authority to establish and maintain a national university.

This opinion is based :

(1) Upon the grant of exclusive jurisdiction for all purposes

whatsoever, over the District of Columbia contained in the seventeenth clause of the eighth section of the first article.

(2) On the right of the Federal Government to establish a civil academy for the education of its civil servants on such a scale and of such a character as in the judgment of the Congress may adequately serve the purpose.

(3) On the further ground that the constitutional history of the United States and the history of the Federal grants to education all go to show that our leading statesmen, including many of those who sat in the constitutional convention, have from the beginning to the present time maintained the view that such power was conferred upon the Federal Government.

(4) Upon the ground that the actual course of legislation by the Federal Government in the endowment of education can be justified only on the same principles as will justify, constitutionally speaking, the establishment and maintenance of a national university.

(5) On the further ground that the first clause of the eighth section of the first article confers upon the Federal Government the distinct authority to appropriate money for any purpose which in their judgment provides for the common defense and promotes the general welfare; and that if in the judgment of the Federal Congress the establishment and maintenance of a national university would be in furtherance of the general welfare, then the authority to take such action is clearly and distinctly conferred by this clause.

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V

THE RELATIONS OF SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

Every college president is expected to discuss the future of the college. The small college especially is asked to show cause why sentence should not be passed upon it, why it should not disappear as a useless member in the academic sequence. I am not concerned about the college, but I am concerned for education; if the college continues to educate it will survive, and only its own shortcomings in the matter of teaching, only unfaithfulness to its own distinctive methods and ideals, can injure or destroy it. The greatest danger of the college is usually said to be that it shall be short-circuited by the high school and the university. The college will not be short-circuited unless it short-circuits itself; it is doing this more often than is suspected; it vaunts itself while unwittingly digging the ground from beneath its feet. The college is short-circuiting itself by the premature adoption of so-called university methods; it forestalls and anticipates the university, discounting its own future by invading a field in which it cannot compete. The college is adopting wholesale methods of teaching, like the lecture system, and is occupying university points of view as to the capacity of students and the responsibility of instructors for the average pupil. Systems of teaching wholesale have their place, but I maintain that their use in college is premature.

What is the assumption upon which the university proceeds? It assumes that the student is mature, that he has a trained mind and a clear and constant purpose, that he is capable of self-direction and self-motion, that he is a developed man intent on study, and that all that need be done is to put before him the opportunity of learning, to present the materials of knowledge, which he will proceed to digest and correlate for himself. It assumes intellectual discipline and maturity of character. The university teaches masses as masses, it puts food

in the rack and assumes that there is a desire and ability to eat and profit. There is no fault to find with this assumption of training and maturity: it must be the assumption of the final stage of education, a real university must make it, but the college cannot make it and remain a college.

Are underclassmen disciplined in mind and settled in purpose? I will put the question another way: "Do you consider the boys who graduate from the high schools as intellectually mature? Is the average boy, when he leaves your hands, a trained brain-workman. Has he developed power of self-direction? Is he fitted to go without guidance?" No one pretends that he is, you least of all! The high-school graduate is immature, and teaching which will do him good must recognize that he is. Methods of teaching assuming maturity in Freshmen are unsuited to college use.

Can a university be a university when four-fifths of its students are immature? Are high-school graduates fit to enter with profit university schools of law and medicine and philosophy? An institution is not a university, whatever it calls itself, until not only its method but its material is of university grade. When colleges apply college methods to college material, and universities have university material to which to apply university methods, different results will be obtained.

Our younger professors, monsters of erudition and of scientific and scholarly interest, are forcing university assumptions on the colleges; they do not want to train and drill and teach dull boys, they do not know how; they want to lecture and let the boys pick up what they can, until the examination reveals their mental poverty and there is an excuse for dropping them. The young professor wants to turn every country college into a university and treat high-school graduates as if they had come from a German gymnasium. He is nearly always a doctor of philosophy and throws himself into his subject with a deadly earnestness destructive of all sense of proportion. He wants to handle well his subject, rather than to handle well his boys; to lecture to the mass of students and to train the few bright ones in research; his science absorbs his thought. A young instructor at a famous institution said of another,

"Thompson will not make his mark in science, he is beginning to show a vulgar interest in teaching." The doctor of philosophy has little use for the slow and dull, and still less for the average idle boy; he is willing to concern himself with the cream of his class, but as to all the rest he is charmed with any excuse to drop them out. In his mind a dull man has no rights, and the instructor no duty of waking up an idle one. This theory is not often plainly stated, but it is widely held. It rests upon an imaginary analogy between an American college and a German university. It imposes on the college the fundamental assumptions of the university, namely, that its students are intellectually mature, that it exists only for bright men, and that it cares little what becomes of the dull and slow and unawakened ones.

The analogy between the American college and the German university is utterly imaginary and misleading. Gymnasium graduates are intellectually mature; they have had nine years of the most rigorous training, they are nearly twenty years old, and the time has come for mental and personal independence. The gymnasial course covers the period which we divide between the high school and the college. It is needless to say that mental autonomy is not reached by American boys in four years when German boys need nine years to arrive at it. Without thinking much about it, many colleges proceed upon the assumption that maturity is established at graduation from the high school. Perhaps this was a necessary assumption thirty years ago when the college was the only place where advanced instruction and impulse to scholarship were imparted; it was then wise, perhaps, to proceed upon lofty assumptions not quite justified by facts, in the hope that a few genuine scholars would be developed. When the college was still the highest place of learning it was perhaps excusable to hold working theories which favored the talented and bore hard upon the average boy; but now that genuine universities, places of graduate study, have been established above and in addition to the college, this assumption is unnecessary. Mere honesty compels us to acknowledge that intellectual maturity is not reached by our boys much before the end of the college

course; in this country as in Germany it takes eight or nine years to reach a university stage of mental capability. The high school plus the college is about equal to the German gymnasium. The college, while not a secondary institution, has to do much secondary teaching, and it need not feel insulted at being bracketed with an institution secondary thruout.

The point of pure scholarship at which the college finishes is not far in advance of that attained by the gymnasium, but the college has a purpose and method different from the gymnasium, which make it vastly better. It leads a boy to a more symmetrical maturity, a maturity wherein social and moral, as well as intellectual, development is included. The gymnasium on one hand, and our high-school and college courses on the other, are different paths of maturity and ours is the best and broadest path. The *terminus ad quem* is the same mental discipline and self-direction. Have our colleges a gymnasial character? Yes, and No! Regarding their earlier classroom work, Yes! Regarding the totality of their training, No! The German boy is led up to maturity by a course of most rigid tutelage both at school and at home. He is in leading strings; he mounts a daily treadmill; he has no social recreations and no training in personal independence. But when he goes to the university all is changed; he has a degree of liberty utterly unknown elsewhere; he is unsupervised, irresponsible, with neither public nor domestic opinion to moderate his self-indulgence. The gymnasium with its superior drill has not taught him how to live. Our college course does teach the student how to live; it is psychologically wise; it grants partial freedom before too long denial has generated the wild excess of defeated individuality. The college course is in all things a process of gradual development and progressive emancipation. It frees from household supervision just when its minuteness becomes injurious. Rights of guidance and discipline still reside in college officers, and student public-opinion enforces a corporate code of ethics and ideals. The difference between the Freshman and the Commencement-day Senior cannot be measured by any *abiturienten examen*, for the raw boy who entered four years earlier has been trained

and socialized into a high-minded gentleman, who is sometimes a bit of a scholar, but in nearly all cases a clear-sighted, self-directed man. The college course is a stage of transition and consequent incongruity of method. It aims to produce maturity, mental, social, and moral, and it must in the beginning be tolerant of undevelopment. Any assumption that demands competent self-direction from an underclassman is dire defeat to true college work. The college must gradually change its teaching methods. As the rigor of the earlier disciplinary stage achieves at last its perfect work, then discursive and inspirational teaching, yes, even lecturing, must be introduced. Transitions must be wisely made and in their true order. The student law forbidding a Freshman to wear a silk hat is a wise provision and a significant allegory. Our friend the young professor is fond of saying, "I treat my class as men"; but the student himself knows that he is not a man, but only a boy learning to become a man. The difficulties of college work come from its transitional character and its only partially scholastic purpose.

The college takes boys too old to remain longer at apron strings, not old enough to be turned loose without restraint, and it tries to train them socially and morally as well as mentally, to develop their characteristic abilities and bring them to self-mastery. It strives to enable them to choose wisely their path of life and to walk in it with fleet and zealous progress. The college does not fail if many of its graduates attain no height of scholarship; it succeeds if it brings out a student's bent, if it gives him self-understanding and the power of enjoying his endowments, however slim. It sends to the university with its blessing the man fitted to shine in scholarship or the professions; it sends into business, no less affectionately, the man fitted only for commercial life, certain that he will be a broader, sweeter public influence and a happier man than if he had begun to sweep an office at fifteen. If college work had to be estimated by its success in making specialists, or by the absolute amount of learning conveyed, two professors meeting would have to grin more amply than the augurs in ancient Rome. The college should knowingly accept the im-

mature; its work is an intermediate and mixed one, its methods are transitional, gradually emancipatory; it is a developing-school; it has a social and moral as well as a scholastic reference, and it cannot without destroying its own usefulness at the very beginning demand or assume maturity and intellectual independence in its pupils.

College instruction must fit itself to the capacities of the average and actual undergraduate; it can change its character only as the man develops. The college is not founded wholly for the few bright men; the slow, the dull and unawakened have their rights, and furnish the material for the real teacher's triumphs. The bright men do not need the solicitous care lavished upon them; they would learn anywhere and almost without instruction. The true college is solicitous for the average man and rejects only the incorrigibly idle and vicious.

My man of straw, the young professor, would say to me, "But your theory degrades the college into a secondary school; secondary teaching is not college teaching." It is the business of the college to make the transition from secondary work to university work, and it must in the beginning use secondary methods; it cannot abandon them until their characteristic disciplinary results have been attained. If the college is to live and be useful it must put itself loyally under the university, and dismiss its student as soon as he is capable of university work. Intellectual independence once reached, it must not keep him in an environment of mixed methods.

Thirty years ago educators assumed that the colleges could be made into universities of the German type, that the high schools would then become gymnasial and do all the mental training. To this end college entrance requirements were increased and large gaps created between school and college. What is the result? The high schools have not become gymnasias, nor have the colleges become universities; the gaps between the two have not closed up. Universities have been constructed on top of the colleges, and the man who completes this triple course is frequently bald before he does a stroke of actual work or earns a dollar. Only fourteen years ago President Eliot wrote, "It is clearly impossible that the

American university should be constructed on top of the old-fashioned American college." But it has been so constructed. School, college, university, and apprenticeship carry a man close to thirty before self-support is reached. There must be a reform and readjustment. The real university, the graduate school, must be loyally maintained; all lower institutions must put themselves into relations contributory and subordinate to it. The college must come down from its too-exalted perch "made in Germany." It can best serve ideal ends by recognizing its own subordinate and disciplinary function; it must not scorn the secondary teaching necessary to bring its students to maturity; it must lay aside its self-flattering ambitions and, thru humility, reach its highest efficiency and an impregnable position.

When are the needs of the average Freshman as he comes from your hands? You yourselves would say: discipline, training, waking up, interest, and the power of self-direction. Does he need more knowledge, more information, more material of thought? He does, and sadly! but most of all he needs to possess his own powers, to be able to get knowledge for himself. Education is not the purveyal of useful information, not a filling of the mind from outside, but the exercise of mind itself; it is the development of a lithe, strong, accurate intelligence which can converge itself on any subject and master it. How many Freshmen have come to this condition? A baker's dozen in a hundred! How shall the result be arrived at? Only by the interested endeavor of a superior mind which hourly struggles with the half-intelligence, the parrot memory, the masterly apathy of the average boy. Maturity and self-direction can be reached at last only when a superior mind is in constant reaction upon the pupil's mind, unraveling its confusions, building upon its previous knowledge and its few vital interests, questioning its unconscious judgments into clearness, ridiculing its vague conceit, reproving mental vices, and almost dragging the reluctant powers to self-activity. But I do not need to enlarge upon the daily procedure of your classrooms. You know that to turn streams of learning upon apathetic minds is not teaching, tho that apathy be masked by

a notebook and a moving pencil. You schoolmasters want to know at every point what your pupil's mind is doing. Teaching means skillful questioning to force mind to see, to arrange, and to act. Thus to awaken a dull mind is proof of highest skill. You constantly test the apprehension of your pupil, well knowing that the fair and fluent form of words may veil abysmal ignorance as to its own meaning. Any genuine teaching is a mental athletic, a movement cure applied to the mind, a process in which superior mind kneads every unused and recognized muscle. As Edward Thring has nobly said:

"Mind is the teacher's subject. He must be able to deal with mind. His first, second, and last thought must be those he has to teach. He addresses himself in every possible way to get at the inner life. He tries to find a chink here, to scrape open a little rift there, for a ray of light to get in. By praise and blame, and skillful application of wits in unexpected ways, he endeavors to meet the boy on his own ground, to beat him there where his own ideas are encamped, to enlist him and lead him on to conquest. A teacher's subject is life and mind. A teacher is an artificer of mind and noble life. A teacher never lets a single life of those put into his hands be spoiled or wasted or flung aside thru neglect or scorn."

You schoolmasters are quietly contemptuous of college teaching. You say among yourselves that college teaching is the poorest teaching of all, and that when colleges wake up to pedagogy the educational millennium will have come. Now why is all this? You do not despise or distrust the college professor's learning; your attitude grows out of your positive knowledge that the average Freshman is not fit to be left to himself. You know that he will not profit by floods of choicest learning poured upon his half-willing and half-awakened mind. You know that the Freshman needs more teaching of your kind, and that the chance of his getting it in college is very small indeed. You cannot shirk your work by turning the dull or half-idle boy out of school, as the young professor wishes to treat his dunces. Somehow or other the stupid boy's parents do not think that those who are paid to teach in secondary schools have done their duty when

they have shut out an unpromising pupil. Parents are foolish enough to think that some moderate degree of teaching effort is due their dull boy no less than to his more brilliant fellow-boy. You realize sharply the vast difference between education and instruction, between training and information, between teaching and pouring a flood of erudition over unresponsive minds. The schools and the colleges can be drawn together in mutual cordiality and respect by the recognition that their province is the same, that each conducts a different stage of the same process, and that training and teaching, educating, and not the purveyal either of useful information or of erudition is their proper and common work. Both parties should recognize that the high school is not responsible for maturity and competent self-direction in its graduates, and that the college is responsible, and that it has no right to evade its disciplinary responsibility by substituting mere lecturing for genuine and earnest individual teaching. If education and teaching survive in it, I have no fear for the future of the college. If the college sharply apprehends what its province is, and what teaching is; if it is loyal to its distinctive work and methods; if it refuses to be deceived by the glamour of incommunicable erudition, and looks upon growing minds, not premature specialists, as its subjects, it will have a distinctive place, and an impregnable position; if it apes the university it will fail and disappear.

The notion that the true college is to become superfluous, that by and by the aspirant can pass from high school to university without losing anything, that the omnibus-institutions are to short-circuit the college, is founded upon a misunderstanding of the conditions under which teaching is possible. Most of the arguments for the small college are insincere. I make no special plea for it; but I do argue and plead for teaching, and for the conditions under which it is possible. Teaching is individualized instruction, instruction which regards each pupil's needs and peculiarities; such individualization is impossible where classes are overgrown, or where lectures are chiefly relied on. Is there any teaching where young professors lecture to a hundred and fifty Freshmen, as is the case

in a certain State university? In most subjects no man can really teach over twenty-five students at a time. If a college is fundamentally a teaching institution, when it becomes so large that instruction is no longer individualized, it ceases to be a college and becomes an educational hybrid (hybrids are usually barren). When it is overgrown an institution usually ceases to be a college. A college is an institution with a definite disciplinary aim; for disciplinary purposes the educational unit must be small, small enough to require activity of every pupil, and to put the teacher's personality into constant and vital reaction with each pupil's mind. When students swamp and overwhelm the teaching power education cannot result. The colleges of Oxford are small, miserably small according to our ideas; they average 125 members; but they can teach!

The effective educational unit is a small one; this is all that can be said for the small college and it is enough. The subdivision of our large institutions into several independent, effective teaching-units, the association in one place of a dozen small colleges, would be a forward step in our educational development; it would secure the advantages of the various types of academic organization and justify the president who enlarged upon the superiority of the small college and prayed for a Freshman class of three hundred.

The colleges are also imperiling their future in another manner; by abandoning their cultural and humanistic ideals, they often substitute the subjects and atmosphere of the technical school for their old literary air and aim. "Ah, there," you say, "is the bigotry which cannot close without a fling at the modernized curriculum." You would say to me, "However sound your previous argument, whether or not technical study belongs in college courses, is another story, as Kipling says"; but the alleged fling does have to do with my argument; it is not an unessential flourish for mere hatred, like *Carthago est delenda*. My contention is as follows: That only can live and prosper which performs some distinctive service, which does well some valuable and unique thing. What shall the college teach? what shall be its distinctive con-

tribution? Something which is well taught nowhere else and which it teaches supremely well. What branches do the colleges now teach best? Beside the old humanistic and literary subjects they teach the whole range of physical science and often go far into professional technology. In the last twenty years all colleges have grown immensely on the scientific or physical side. Elaborate equipment has been provided and ample teaching service. This is matter for congratulation; but the institutes of technology do all these things better far! So long as the primacy of the humanistic be maintained, scientific enlargement can do no harm; but is this primacy maintained? In most colleges it is not! The physical outruns the cultural and leaves the college but lamely performing its distinctive function. There are many who deplore the avidity of our students for physical science, their turning away from languages and philosophy, and who find the explanation in the commercial value of physics and biology—but there is another reason. On the humanistic side many of our colleges have ceased to give good individualized instruction, while on the physical side they have provided it in generous measure. Student interest always centers in the best taught subjects. In many colleges of recognized rank Latin and Greek are taught by two or three professors to large divisions (which allow a boy to be called up but twice a week), while chemistry and biology have a laboratory instructor constantly at the student's elbow. College faculties are not insensible to these conditions. They do not defend them; they frequently deplore them and say that it is easy to get an expensive laboratory while impossible to secure the endowment of a humanistic chair. Most colleges are obliged to take an opportunist course, and to develop, not according to a consistent self-chosen policy, but according to the whims and predilections of the wealthy benefactor. They do not take the old warning in reverse and "fear the (anti) Greeks tho bearing gifts."

Twenty years ago, in a certain famous college, there were two hundred students with a faculty of thirteen men, nine working on the humanistic side, four teaching the sciences; to-day that college has four hundred students, with a faculty

of twenty-six, equally divided between scientific and humanistic departments. The growth of the cultural side has not kept pace with that of the physical side. Twenty years ago there were two hundred students; three professors were employed in teaching classics, and one professor each for physics, chemistry, and biology; to-day, with four hundred students, there are still three men doing all the classics, while three are teaching biology, three others teaching physics, two chemistry, and five more, miscellaneous sciences including mathematics. In twenty years the scientific teachers have increased three hundred per cent., the humanistic staff hardly fifty per cent. Four hundred students have taken the place of two hundred, the classical departments show no gain in number of instructors, English has gained one, modern languages are stronger by one assistant, history and political economy have added one full professor, the scientific staff has trebled; and this in an institution which gives but one degree, bachelor of arts. Is it at all likely that the supremacy of the humanities is there maintained? Is it probable that there is much individualized instruction on the cultural side? With such an increase of students all professedly pursuing literary courses, with but meager re-enforcement of the humanistic staff, there are but two alternatives: either to make a mere show of teaching fatally large divisions, or to take refuge in the lecture system. This is an extreme instance; but in many of our colleges the scientific instruction is more highly individualized and consequently better than the humanistic teaching. The literary and philosophical departments are undermanned and neglected, and students turn aside to the physical departments where facilities and supervision are adequate. The continued life of the colleges depends on loyalty to their own distinctive methods, subjects, and ideals. The college will be impregnable so long as it is real, so long as it accepts its subordinate and disciplinary function, so long as it teaches, vitally and individually, and so long as it remembers that its distinctive field is humanistic culture.

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VI

HISTORY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

It is the purpose of this paper to outline a course and to suggest material for instruction in history for the eight grades of the elementary school. The course is not wholly theoretical, since it has been in use long enough to test its working and results. The presentation deals wholly with the practical aspect.

Before attempting to lay out a course in any subject three things must be pretty definitely settled:

I What is to be accomplished by the course—its educational aim and end.

II The nature of the subject—its practical and culture values.

III The availability and the adaptability of its material—the adjustment of means to end.

I It is not the purpose here to discuss at length the vexed question of theories. The educational world has not reached its theoretical conclusion, and practice is far from ideal as yet. Perhaps in the movement of the last decade, however, no idea has gained greater prominence than this, that civilization is the determining factor in education. When enunciated by such men as Dr. Harris and his colleagues of the Committee of Fifteen the proposition has great weight. The child is to be educated into his civilization. The proposition may be expanded in terms of history. Civilization has been defined as the art of living together in civil society; that is, in social groups organized under government. Persons composing civil society, that is, living in an organized group, are individuals and at the same time, bound together by mutual interest, enter into the common group-life. Therefore, in such a society interests are both individual and general. Between these two, the individual with his partial interests and the group with its general interests, play the great social forces.

Progress or growth has been toward the balance between the two; that is, toward the realization of the individual in civil society. Civilization, the actual conditions in his own social group, the stage of progress at which he consciously enters into his social relations, is of paramount importance in determining the outcome of the individual life. Society opens to the individual opportunities and possibilities—just what depends upon the mutual relations between the two. Society has vast resources in its commerce and industry, vast learning in its sciences and arts, its literature, its fine arts, its affairs. The individual realization in actual possession of these treasures is determined by individual activity. But individual activity is directed and controlled by the relation of the individual to organized society—civilization. The things which the child is born into in his own family group, the things which he encounters thruout his whole preparation, the activities into which he finally enters, the good which he at last possesses—all come from the mutuality of the individual and society. A right understanding of society and the intelligent conduct of the individual in it are the product of education on the side of human relations. The individual apart from society is incomplete; education must put him into possession of his larger self. The course herein outlined is a study in group-life to the end that the egoism of childhood and the individualism of youth may discover the real selfhood in society.

History makes no claim to being a center of instruction; it makes no effort to determine proportion between subjects. It offers culture to the social side merely of a child's nature, and within this field attempts what no other subject has yet accomplished—an education in citizenship.

II On account of the different meanings current, it becomes necessary, so far as this paper is concerned, to fix a definite use of the word history. Science carries three conceptions—the notion of energy as manifested in motion, form as created by motion, and knowledge gained by the investigation of form. Plant life creates its organisms or forms. Botany is knowledge gained by investigation of the vegetable kingdom. Or, the man lives. His spirit molds his word and deed thru which

biography knows his spiritual substance. Or again, the life of the feeling, willing, acting social group creates the historic forms thru which history is reached. To denominate all those group-activities which build institutions and laws history, is to divert the word from its root meaning. In this latter conception history concerns itself not with knowledge, but with growth, life, development. It makes action the great concrete historical fact. In this sense history is life, history is the spiritual evolution of humanity. This is a meaning read into the word by the new thought of the time and as yet always calls for determination.

Again, not infrequently, relics, monuments, records, documents, customs, institutions, laws, etc., are spoken of as history, usually as primary, original, or objective history. These forms were created by the activity of the people; they are remains of life. They are historic forms and the sole means thru which the life of the group can be reconstructed and become known. These things left over from the past are not history but the record of history. Historical material is their simplest designation.

The word, first appearing in the Greek *historia*, originally meant knowing by investigation. By a natural and easy transition it came to mean that which is acquired, or knowledge gained by investigation. Investigation carried on under the spur of interest implies assimilation, unification. Thus was reached a body of knowledge or history. By the determination of use, only the knowledge of life, progress, evolution of the social group gained by the investigation of the historical material of the group is history. History in this use is subjective and opposed to the sense first noted, which is objective. Both uses have the sanction of good authority as does also the phrase *science of history*, which could be admissible only under the first signification. Group-activity, historical material, history form a series of unequivocal terms as does also history, historical material, science of history. In neatness of expression the latter is preferable, but in real critical accuracy the former is to be preferred. In this paper history is used in the latter signification as denoting

active social life, while science of history is used to denote knowledge of that life.

So much has been done that doubt can no longer exist that historical material admits of scientific treatment. The research has covered wide fields and been carried on with entire devotion to truth, while the results have been put forth in so unified and integral a form as to constitute a science of history. The science is not complete, and indeed no science is; perhaps this is not more fragmentary than others. The science of history is built upon certain fundamental notions discoverable in fact and having their counterpart in the thoughts, feelings, and volitions of the people. These notions are that of a social whole in which change, progress, evolution go on, that of the record created by the movements as necessary to all progress, that of the law of cause and effect under which all changes occur, and that of time to which all changes are referred.

The idea of the social group is itself complex, including the constitutive idea, the organizing idea, and the activity idea. The individuals of a group are first drawn together by common interest, "consciousness of kind," and thru mutual sharing reach the common desire, the common purpose, the common will of the social whole. Common interest assumes many forms, as the kinship of the ancient clan, the worship of the ancient family; material gain, as in the guilds; the intellectual life, as in a great university; but of whatever form, it is reciprocity which transforms the aggregate of individuals into the one whole of the group. Reciprocity is the constitutive or unifying idea of the group. Individuals composing the group enter into some ordered relations under authority. The authority assumes also many forms, as the patriarchal head, the chief and war leader, the king, the elected magistrate. Authority is the organizing idea of the group. Authority creates the means by which to perform the functions of group life. The friction of the social life, the conflict between partial and general good, the necessity in man's nature, his need and greed intensified and modified by social contact have been the force shaping activity. Ownership, meaning all that society

seeks to attain and possess, is the *push* idea in the group. The push of society realizes itself in social forms known as institutions. The investigation of these self-perpetuating means thru which society works out its progress, development, life, is the exclusive province of the science of history. Based upon the fundamental ideas it builds its structure—knowledge of the history of the social group. Science of history “keeps its gaze fixed upon the social whole of humanity.”

Of all partnerships into which human society enters that of the state based upon the authority idea is most inclusive. It by no means follows that at all periods of life the political idea is the most aggressive historical force, but it is true that at all periods the state furnishes the conditions, the sphere, for all activity. At one time, as in the Middle Ages, the Church exerts the push, at another it is a revival of learning, at another, as to-day, it is industrial and economic ideas that shape history. But always it is society, organized under government, the state, that is the arena. The state stands to the individual the representation of national life, the embodiment of ultimate power, the highest expression of justice and humanity. History really becomes the evolution of the state, while the science of history—the result of the investigation and experience of history—embraces all that the human mind has determined regarding the evolution of the state in its most comprehensive meaning.

The unfolding of the common life of a people, which constitutes history, is not inaptly called evolution. It manifests itself thru the phenomena of change. These phenomena are not merely single isolated acts, which repeat themselves from time to time. They appear in a series. Each adds to or supplements that which went before. Each is norm to that which comes after. Magna Charta is reached after centuries of growth, and every hard-fought battle for natural rights since reiterates its eternal truth. This successive nature of historical phenomena makes time an essential element in history as well as a fundamental notion in the science of history.

Thru these constantly changing movements may be traced the unfolding, growth, progress of humanity. The process

of growth is marked more or less distinctly by the course of certain ideas realized in facts. They appear like continuous threads running thru the fabrics of history. These ideas are causal in their nature. They constitute the real historical force determining the order of events. They exhibit the law of historical movements—cause and effect—and constitute true historical unity. The science of history integrates its material according to this law.

Taken up by the social mind and borne on thru each succeeding epoch, these ideas have stood in history thru all its known development. Thru the effort and conflict to carry on these ideas historical forms have been created and worn into meaning. These forms are the permanent record of the progress of society. Take a single illustration. The idea of a vast and inscrutable power above the soul is as old as history. This idea found expression in a liturgy of sacrifice by which to placate the all-power. Sacrifice gave place to formal worship, which, in turn, yielded to a liturgy of benevolence in the early Christian centuries, only to be exchanged for a liturgy of creeds in the Middle Ages. To-day the creeds go to ruin, while the Church chants its liturgy of life. The religious aspirations, feeling, thought of society created the Church. The Church is the organ or means by which religious life expresses itself in growth. The Church, under all its varying phases, marks the religious progress of society. It is a record without which progress would be impossible. Society has thus created five of these great institutions which stand in history the permanent record of civilization. The science of history investigates, interprets, reconstructs, and the past lives again in the present.

The mind that investigates and knows is kin to the mind whose volitions are recorded in historical forms. Each has experienced the same hopes and fears, desires and passions. Each knows the motives of the human spirit because each is a human spirit. Each knows the energy as well as the form of human life. Knowing, experiencing, each understands. In a way peculiar to itself, it is the province of this science to look behind the forms to discover the activities which created them and not only so, but to apprehend the thoughts, desires, voli-

tions from which came the activity. The science of history knows the form in order to understand the idea or "content" of the form. The knowledge takes hold on human interests, human relations, human living on its social side. The science merely as a fact-study can make no claims to peculiar educational value. But when the experience becomes the interpreter of the form and the knowledge in turn enriches the experience, when living in the social world becomes the object of the knowing, then the science becomes for the social nature a culture of rare value. To experience life is to live. To experience history is to live more largely, more abundantly.

III The nature of the subject suggests both material and method. Having determined the fundamental idea of history, it is necessary to select under all limiting conditions forms to carry adequately the ideas. If at any point this be impossible, then the subject is not available for teaching. Of the four concepts upon which history is based, it is difficult to determine which came first into man's consciousness, but it is not difficult to determine with which to begin the investigation. Since experience must furnish the apperceiving center, group life will afford the vantage ground from which to work. Neither the family nor the school, taken as groups giving rise to social and educational institutions, is available for primary teachers, but, taken as types of group-life, they exactly meet the need. The child's very existence springs from the interrelations in the family and among them he finds his constant home. He actively engages in the pursuits of his group and finds his right place under its authority. Submerged in the family, bearing the family name, sheltered under the responsibility of the father, accountable only to the father, the child is living primitive history. The house that shelters him, its plat of ground, the partition lines, and the streets are ancient historical forms fraught with meaning. Food and clothing, utensils, furniture, toys, tools, the common things which he has daily to do have come in modified forms from a remote past in the history of man. They are the product and index of civilization. While these things carry the lessons in group-life, showing the utter dependence upon society, and afford an easy means for setting

forth the ideas of reciprocity, authority, and activity, they also may connect by similarity of idea with a primitive civilization. Once the child understands the real meaning of these forms the knowledge becomes means thru which to gain wide and ever widening experience in life.

As material the school is even more fruitful than the family. Reciprocity of kinship is here replaced by the more general common interest. Authority, still personal in type, makes constant appeals to the child's sense of public good. The partnership, no longer natural but practical, is the means thru which the push of the group makes itself felt. The classes, the play-groups, the cliques, in the child's small world, correspond to the practical partnership of society. The plays on the playground show the beginning of group mind in law and justice and group ownership. It were needless to particularize further. To the teacher, once let the force and significance of this group-life be felt, an unfailing supply of ever new material is opened. The education of the early grades gives the child the consciousness of his group and his dependence upon it, and discovers to him in the interrelations the law for conduct. Not unfrequently the teacher, quite unconscious of this culture for the child's social nature, in searching for historical material, misses the greatest gift just under the thumb.

The neighborhood and the village or community are historical forms which early find a place in the conscious experience of the child. Altho the neighborhood is not organic, having no exclusive means thru which as a group it works, still it exhibits so plainly social right, custom, law, and public good, that it may make a transition study between the family and the true civic group. Its study will broaden family interests and assist the mind in the synthesis of the true community. The social and college settlements expressing the neighborhood thought offer very interesting associated material. In the civic community the whole field of history lies open to the teacher. In this small group unity of group-life is felt and understood without difficulty. Water supply, lighting, fire department, public parks, taxes suggest the means for the illustration of reciprocity. The authority based on the will of

many, the very life of our political institutions, is here seen electing officers, making ordinances, granting rights and privileges—in short, carrying out the work of the community. Activity finds its appropriate means in the same institutions as in a more general group. School, guilds, church, family, government, all find their place in this miniature state. The play between social and individual interest is here closely related with the small concerns of children. Society makes known its wants, men go into business to meet the need, the boy finds a place for his peanut stand and sale for his pop-corn balls. It will not be difficult for him to appreciate a glut in the market. He understands the conditions of a thriving business thru his own experience. Fact and illustration sufficient to lay the foundation principles of economics pass under his daily observation. Industries, trade, transportation, hotels, business of all sorts, created by society, supply the need of society and profit the individual. He sees that he who serves the public wisely and well serves himself best. The limitations upon the individual for the good of the many, the golden rule of civic society, are the content of laws and ordinances, such as forbidding bicycles on the walk, cows in the street, or wooden buildings within the fire limit. If there can ever be any degree of certitude in teaching, surely the material found in the civic community can be relied upon to fix a habit of thinking, feeling, and acting. The meaning of the whole study is the mutuality between the individual and society.

Within the limits of experience is found abundant material to carry the notion of the social group. The other three ideas fundamental in history require no specially adapted material for their presentation. The mind soon recognizes the historical forms which become the subject of investigation as the record of the people whose activity created them. In coming to understand the people thru their volition which created the historical forms, the mind constantly makes its inference from effect to cause and the reverse. Thus is reached the notion of the law of cause and effect in accord with which the phenomena of history occur. Under this law history is progressive. The activity of to-day builds upon that which has gone before.

The nation to-day lives upon its ruins. That which stands in history to-day may be traced by successive additions and modifications from the remote times. The idea of progress in history, which is inseparable from that of time, is perhaps the last to be grasped by the pupil; but in the study of types or in tracing the current of a people's life thru a historical period the sense of progress thru time is so developed that the mind is satisfied only when the successive nature of the events is evident.

For natural reasons growing out of the child's limitations the first study must be his own group. A succession of progressive types similar in content to his own experience will furnish the means for giving not only the fourth fundamental notion in history, that of time, but also the knowledge of how the present condition of society has been reached. Thru this study the pupil comes to know his own group, to understand his place in it, to enter intelligently into its life of activity.

The school must depend largely upon literature to furnish the material thru which to exhibit the life of the typical groups. Hebrew literature offers some of the first material for this work. Homer's *Iliad*, the *Nibelungen Lied*, the *Lovers of Provence*, *The tale of the house of the Wolfings* are the finest art as well as material rich in history. Myth, legend, folk-lore, show the religious thought, the general intelligence, and often give hints of more fundamental historic notions, tho the bulk of this material had its origin before the dawn of civilization and is valueless as historical material. The novels, and their name is legion, often serve a purpose better than the so-called histories simply because they depict life, which is what many books on history do not do. Compilations of documents and excerpts from contemporaneous writers have multiplied in the last ten years. Last of all are the monumental works really constituting a science of history. The usual school text cannot be much relied upon, especially in the lower grades. The so-called primary history is almost invariably biography. The usual grammar grade text—there are some marked exceptions—selects events so as to leave a very dim idea of an organic whole of society at work thru its institutions. Material se-

lected nearer the sources and adapted to class use will be found to serve a better purpose.

Present historical forms in daily experience, as customs, institutions, laws, relics, records, etc.; the literature, both prose and poetry; art, including the novel and the drama; the science of history as recorded by master scholars—these constitute part of an inexhaustible mine of material open for the teacher's working.

Suggestions for a course—The following suggestions are carried out in accord with the principles as outlined. In the nature of the case other courses, according with the principles, could be written out; other material could be selected carrying equally well the historical ideas. Not the historical *forms*, but the content of the forms, is the essential thing. Not to apprehend a fact, but a life thru the fact, is the ultimate effort of mind. Some fact-forms show the common life more plainly than others and are, therefore, better suited to the purpose. Any course must start with the actual knowledge of the child. Interest will be in exact ratio of the similarity of the new material to the old ideas already in mind. The similarity is not in facts, but in idea behind the facts. The near or remote is not in time or place, but in idea. Any course will be impracticable which does not build upon the child's experience, which does not make constant appeal to interest, and which does not portray the successive phases of the deathless common life of a civil society.

The first group-study

Time—The kindergarten and the first and second grades are occupied with this study.

Steps—In the first step the child becomes conscious of his group. He finds his place in it. His work, play, games, going and coming often, quite depend upon companionship. Thru sharing, reciprocity, the child reaches the general concept of a social group as a whole, an intelligent self-direction in the whole, and a recognition of the fact that his pleasure and profit spring from the whole.

In the second step the child gains the concept that the whole

is composed of individuals, each in relation to the others. He feels the pressure of the group upon his personality on all sides. It determines his rule of conduct, fixes his standard of justice, offers purpose and direction for his activity. The notion of common interest, interdependence, is clearer; authority in the head of family or school, acting from the consciousness of common need, is recognized as creating the organ of the social whole thru which its wants are satisfied. The notion that individual effort is the absolute condition of ownership is gained. So activity shares activity, life shares life.

The third step is representative. The notion of a group not the child's own, but represented by his own, is reached. The child makes an effort to understand the people, the facts of whose life are fitted into corresponding facts within his own experience. To compare, to discover the truth in the fact is consciously made the constant effort. He is helped to look behind the fact to discover that which is truer than fact. In the songs, the stories, the folk-lore, the dwelling, the occupations, the clothing, in all the details of their life he recognizes kinship, or brotherhood. In reconstructive imagination he identifies himself with them, his pulse throbs with their pulse-beats.

The other historical ideas of record, time, and law of change begin to shape themselves in the mind, to be fully apprehended later.

Material—The child's experience at home and in school furnishes the basis for the work. In the kindergarten the entire work is really the "first step" in the history teaching. The study is life under its actual present conditions. In this way only is gained the body of ideas by which to interpret history. Extend experience by discovering the same ideas in the historical forms relating to other groups. Arrange typical groups so as to show the successive additions to civilization. The following list of families is offered in illustration: Hebrew, early Aryan, Greek, Roman (clientage), Castle (vassalage), French in Canada, Southern plantation, New York Dutch, New England forefathers, Pioneers. Other series could be written showing equally well the fundamental notions of history. In

this series may be traced the progress from the old patriarchal family based on kinship and worship in which the individual had no recognition, thru the loosening of the family bond by clientage and vassalage, the falling away of these ideas and the segregation into smaller groups with new meaning. That is, the individual is seen emerging from the dead level of the old family, putting on the semblance of freedom and manhood, and finally assuming at maturity his individual responsibility in society. The authority in the entire series is personal, but is seen changing from the unlimited authority of the old patriarch to parental authority limited by law. The family was first seen as the sole means thru which to carry on all the group activities. It not only perpetuated the group, but also was the means of government, determined and carried out the worship, was the church, performed all the labor, carried on all the industries, and provided a general education for its children. As social life becomes more complex the family is more and more limited in authority and scope, until to-day it is a recognized institution having its own peculiar function. It is not the purpose to set these historical ideas in any formal way before the child, but by mingling in the old-time life the notion of these things forms itself in his consciousness and the, to him, priceless treasure of his own life becomes real.

A single study is also given here to serve as illustration of the use of the material. It will be found sufficiently elastic to afford suggestion for any family study. The real forms include all those material things indicating the customs which prevailed at the time and the institutions under which group life went on.

The ideal forms are those which spring from the partnership of ideas. They are the means thru which man in society shares thought and emotions—life.

Family life

Real forms:

Members of family: Including dress, appearance, names, etc.

Protection: Clothing, houses, tents, huts, the group itself.

Authority: Parents, patriarch, teacher, law, justice, reward.

Sharing: Interdependence, common use, furniture, toys, tools, utensils, implements.

Activity: Occupation, co-operation, self-help, home-help, celebrations, games, sports.

Ideal forms:

Music: Instruments, songs, dancing.

Language: All forms of literature, myths, folk-lore, legends, etc.

Religion: Family altar, ceremonies, tombs of ancestors.

The beautiful: Expressed in pictures, carving, temples, etc.

Home pictures showing family life:

A family meal or a feast.

The house and its appointments.

The preparation of food and clothes.

The hearth stone and hearth fire.

It must be borne in mind that the aim is not to impart a few facts concerning the evolution of society. The facts are means to an end. There is need of constantly repeating: the aim is to build the child.

The second group-study

This study is based upon some presuppositions which can fairly be made.

1. The child has some idea of a group in society constituting a social unit, in which the parts stand in reciprocal relation.

2. A notion of the object of government and its effect on society.

3. Such an understanding of social relations as shall in a degree determine conduct.

4. Some knowledge of facts and their relation to each other.

Community life

Time—Three or four years will not be too long to give to

this study—from the third primary perhaps to the second grammar grade inclusive.

Steps—The first step seeks to reach the notion of society as composed of individuals in family groups. The work is sympathetic and builds the larger historic whole—the civic community. This group has local determination; its unity springs from the reciprocity of common interest; its authority rests upon the will of many; its activity grows out of the effort to realize the individual in the community.

The second step discovers the community activity and the organs thru which it works, such as government, schools, church, etc. It shows community authority as above the individual, the essential thing, since it secures to the individual safety and all possible opportunity. It shows law, the expressed wish of the greatest number, as the absolute condition of individual freedom.

The third step considers the individual's relation to the group. It takes up individual activities by which society is helped or hindered. It makes some simple studies in production, transportation, market, supply and demand. It shows the reciprocal relation between the individual and the whole, and fixes his standard of civic right—the greatest good to the greatest number.

The fourth step takes up the study of historical communities. The historical community must be typical and, especially in the early study, show conditions rather than movements. The later study traces simple historical movements. Naturally those communities with which the child is already somewhat familiar thru family study would be selected. If other material seem to make larger appeal to the child, without doubt that should be given the preference. The following list is entirely practicable: the Greek war-community, the German Mark, the Teuton sea rovers, the feudal group, the New World communities, with more detailed work in typical English colonies in America.

In dividing the work in these two groups into "steps" an attempt is made to fix a standard rather than an invariable order. The order named seems both logical and psychologi-

cal, but there can be no reason to hold to it invariably. Neither does it suppose the first step completed before the second or third is touched upon. The teachers in class work usually carry the study of actual condition along into the study of the historical group in order to secure better opportunity for comparison and inference. The present conditions furnish the knowledge by which to understand the historical life of the more ancient group, while the historical life in turn, by showing the present in process of growth, will greatly modify the conception of actual conditions in the child's experience. While the work, therefore, is set off into steps it merely indicates the concepts which in the end should shape themselves in distinct consciousness.

In the study of the historical communities an effort is made to give clearly the notion of time, chronology, and constant comparisons are drawn and judgments are reached; the investigation holds more sharply to institutional lines; facts are selected with the idea of showing progress in civilization; some effort is made to retain a fund of knowledge basic in future studies.

Material—First, the civic community of which the child is a member. The common interest, government, and activities are all embodied in forms in constant use. What was said earlier in the discussion concerning the material makes further suggestion here unnecessary. Work must always start from the personal observation of the pupil and use illustration and example always within his own experience. The material has a direct bearing upon other sciences, and care will be needed lest it fail to show social life and so fail to be historical material.

Literature furnishes abundant material for setting forth ancient communities. The *Iliad* is an inexhaustible storehouse. The poetry is full of charm, the stories a never failing interest, while thru it the currents of young life flow. Love, devotion to kin, friendship, anger are heroic. The social organization of the Greeks, the machinery of government of this war community, the customs, industries, military organization and tactics, weapons, arts, inventions—all are so much a part

of the story and receive such natural and unstudied touch as to prove them things well known to the Greeks. The poem becomes fruitful historical material altogether unimpaired by any literary controversy about its form or value. The *Odyssey* in the same way portrays a peace community. It works out an ordered life with its prosperous industries and markets, its commerce and ships, its dwellings, its social organizations and customs and government. The romance of the *Odyssey* makes a strong appeal to the story-loving nature of children. Someone calls it the *Robinson Crusoe* of antiquity.

Morris, that genius for many things, has reproduced early Teuton life with truly antiquarian flavor. The first part of the book, *The tale of the house of the Wolfings*, pictures life as it went on in an ancient Mark during the "fore-gleams of history." It is picturesque, romantic, and dramatic, while the community life and institutions follow lines laid down in accredited sources. The same author has reproduced in most charming measure, under the title of *Sigurd the Volsung*, an old Norse story. It is the legend upon which Wagner has built his opera. Substantially the same story, told by German minstrels, recounts life at its wildest among the Teutons of Germany. These minstrel lays and legends compiled by some unknown poet, and later called the *Nibelungen Lied*, have come to be much prized and put side by side with the *Iliad*. It can never, however, be so valuable as historical material, altho it has large suggestion. The spirit of the age is in it, but it lacks in historical setting, if indeed it has any at all.

Where material is so abundant it seems difficult to select. There is one other story, however, which so embodies the spirit of the troubadours that one cannot forbear mentioning it, while a recent edition has made it accessible, Bida's *Lovers of Provence*. Hale, in his *In His Name*, introduces a minstrel who recites and sings in turn this song-story. It breathes of fidelity, chivalry, and love, beside being suggestive of the age. The story of *Sweet William* serves the same purpose.

Heroes among the sea rovers, such as Rolf the Ganger, Clovis, Eric, Theodoric, or Hengist, are not strangers. These

leaders, with their war bands, played an important part in the succession of events. They were community men; they settled in communities in the new lands which in time produced a new social and political order. They connect easily with the great Old World movements, were the forefathers of discoveries, and lead out into a wide field of interest. La Salle, Cadillac, Marquette, Tonty are the sea rovers who, with their personal following, built forts and planted communities in the New World. Types of community life, as led and shaped by these great leaders, are under examination. No effort at connected narration is yet attempted. In the Old World the center of interest and authority was the war-leader and the feudal lord; in Canada the Church held things together. In the English colonies the peculiar feature was the enlarged sphere of self-government, as seen in town meeting and assemblies. That means community was larger, authority stood for more, reciprocity was freer, common interests were broader. For the American colony-communities there is a surprising amount of available material. Novels have been written to reproduce life; diaries, poems, excerpts, original documents, records of all sorts have been thrown out rapidly in good reprints. This material is cheap, and excellent in every way.

The outline for community study is given here merely for illustration. The teacher must be at liberty to use the form best suited to local conditions.

Community life

Real forms: Name, territory, people.

Interest in: Public works,

Public property,

Public protection.

Men who serve the community:

Business, professions, trades.

Ideal forms: Art of all forms.

Literature: Papers, books.

Religion: Churches.

Intelligence: Schools.

Community doing its work:

Holding assemblies and councils.

Choosing officers and leaders.

Making ordinances or laws.

Raising money or dividing spoils.

Providing schools.

Taking care of poor and helpless.

Carrying on war.

What the community gives to each one:

Protection for life and property.

Security for individual rights.

Conditions for individual improvement.

Opportunity for individual gain

Thus far the course has been arranged with the purpose of reaching with the pupils the four fundamental concepts of history, thus to secure an apperceiving center for historical truth. It has also carried an ethical purpose and aimed to make the body of knowledge such as to determine conduct in society.

The third group-study

At this point the course begins to work away from the study of typical group conditions toward that of progressive series of facts portraying national life. That is, instead of considering only phases of institutional life, the movements which make for growth or progress of these institutions are under observation.

The oldest as well as the simplest forms of national groups organized for government are found in the ancient theocratic or family states. The idea of government by men upon whom the gods conferred the *imperium* is embodied in the early states of Greece, as Athens and Sparta. The Hebrew people also found expression for their national life under a like organization. These people, not wholly unknown to the children, form an easy introduction to the old despotic kingdoms of Babylon, Egypt, and Persia.

The fourth group-study

The study thus far notes changing conditions and discovers movements rather than traces them. Passing from the con-

sideration of the typical despotic kingdoms with their ancient civilization, the study takes up the real political state in which the individual begins to recognize his citizenship. Greece affords the example. The aim in the work is to show in a series of events how the citizen regarded the state and what the state did for her citizens; to show what a splendid thing their city was, but what a poor thing was their citizenship. The salient features of the history from Solon to Alexander furnish material for the study.

In the next type of state the citizen, recognizing his rights as natural and inalienable, is protected by law in the exercise of them. The written code includes both the law of private and public rights. The Roman republic illustrates the type, and a primer of Roman history affords material already adapted to class use.

Domination by the individual, his usurpation of existing order, the maintenance of power by an immense army, and finally the extension of individual power in a vast civil and military organization, naturally follows the Roman republic and embraces the period of empire. The story of the Church is included.

The next state is transitional and builds into the empire those small states which finally push out the empire and make the new strong government. Names like Hengist, Clovis, Theodoric, men of the Teuton war-band, give the key to the material. These men were war leaders and prepared the way for the real kings.

The fifth group-study

The personal government of strong-handed kings characterizes this group. Kingship was hereditary and was really the government. The king, however, did not own the land, and he must respect the rights of his people. Law and order were never entirely destroyed and institutions grew. The social institution of feudalism receives its treatment in this connection with the strong-handed monarchy. Charlemagne's kingdom, or later that of Louis XIV., is the best illustration of this state. Rolf in Normandy, Arthur in West Saxony, William in England, Hildebrand in the Church, show the spirit

of the strong personal ruler in feudal society. About these names is grouped all the material for the study of the strong kings.

The sixth group-study

What men who thought did while the strong-handed kings ruled.

a. They compelled the kings to respect the rights of the people; the rise of the commons. 1200-1300.

b. They found out how to do many things; inventions, discoveries, learning, statues and pictures, buildings, etc. 1300-1500.

c. They broke the Church in two; reformation in many countries. 1500-1600.

d. They resisted the government; revolutions in England, France, America. 1600-1800.

The material for extension *a* is integrated thru such names as Saint Louis and Philip the Fair; John and Edward I.; Robert Bruce and Wallace. The William Tell story illustrates the same idea and shows how people loved liberty.

The material for extension *b* is abundant in encyclopedia, biography, story. It all shows how knowledge was extended, empire established, the Church built up, and institutions made more perfectly to serve the people.

Extension *c* finds its explanation in the religious reformers. The work is needed to complete the great movements of the people, but little can be attempted beyond making clear the fact of the progress which the state was making in freedom of thought and belief. The political aspect of the reformation, the part which government played in it, and the important changes which it brought about are the salient points in the study.

Extension *d* integrates its material thru the thought—a revolt against taxation without consent. It makes a good deal of the industrial conditions and restrictions as affecting revolution. The Puritan revolt in England, the English colonies in America, and the uprising of the Third Estate in France furnish the examples. Quite a full study is made of the

American Revolution. The material is so abundant and familiar that no detail is here attempted.

The seventh group-study

This study embraces the self-governing political states. The people know themselves to be the state, they have a common understanding concerning their inalienable rights, and take an active part in government. The laws based upon natural right afford the individual protection in the exercise of the "truest liberty." Lines of events, showing the development of national resources and power, as industries, commerce, alliances are selected. Those things which have influenced national feeling, spread intelligence, opened up resources, or in any large way modified national life, are carefully noted. The active historical ideas are followed thru the lines of events in which they are *realized* after which they are integrated into the whole, the warp and woof of national life.

America, for lack of time, is the only illustration used in the final study. Other states are no less fruitful in resources and lessons. A more careful discrimination and co-ordination of material might make a more extended view possible, but America must always hold the prominent place in American schools. The material for the study is already fairly well adapted in text-books. In addition to them is the abundant source material in cheap publications. There is no thought of putting aside the book at any point of the course where a text is available, but only to set out the integrating and developing idea which is absolutely essential to a course.

The attempt has been to show the evolution of the state; that is, to show how the people working together have found the means thru which to realize the greatest national good. At the same time, the attempt has been to show that the evolution of the state has been the evolution of the individual in society, wherein alone he finds the realization of his fullest self. The state for the individual and the individual for the state.

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VII

DISCUSSIONS

IS THERE A "NEW REVIVAL"?

In view of the fact that the drift of educational ideas appears to be quite different as represented in the articles, "A New revival" and the "Harvard reform in entrance requirements," published in the October EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, it occurred to me that it might be interesting to know whether the first or the second of these opinions was in line with the statistics of the Commissioner of Education.

If the statistics be taken from the beginning to the end, then it appears that there is a revival of ancient languages. There was no doubt a revival, because college men entered the public-school work some eight or ten years ago, more than before; and no doubt they brought with them what was current in the college courses from which they came. This brought on the revival. But when it is noted that college courses have recently been modified considerably from the old lines, it also appears natural to expect different results in the public schools.

This is shown by the increase per cent. taken from the last three years during which the statistics are more complete. From the years 1894-95 to 1895-96 the order of percentage of increase is psychology, physical geography, physiology, Latin, German, geometry, French; from 1895-96 to 1896-97 the order is rhetoric, German, Latin, geometry, algebra, chemistry; for 1896-97 to 1897-98 the order is French, rhetoric, history, German, Latin, algebra. Judging by these three last years, Latin goes down in the scale to fifth place, to say nothing about English literature, which will no doubt be very prominent; since the colleges do now generally make provisions for English literature. Therefore good, well-trained teachers will be at hand and English literature, as it ought to be, will be very prominent.

However, the percentage of increase may not be so large. It must be remembered that percentage increase depends so

largely on the basis. English literature begins with 215,810, or thirty-nine per cent., which shows that it is studied now about one year and one-half of the school course, assuming that the course is four years. Then, the comparison between Greek, trigonometry, astronomy, geology, and psychology is misleading. During the last three years the gain of Greek is less than the increase of population of the schools; the former being 13 and the latter 18.5 per cent. Again, it is probably true that nearly all of the students who take Greek take it with a view to entering a college where Greek is required; and therefore the student takes it for two or perhaps three years.

Therefore the number of students beginning this branch would be really only from one-half to one-third of the 24,994, because the same pupil would be reported in two or three successive years. In the other branches named, which undoubtedly are only one-year courses and often less, a new set of pupils will have to take up the branch every year, so that, no doubt, a revival of ancient languages has taken place, but it is probably over, and the revival is now in favor of modern languages and sciences so far as the latter may be introduced in the public schools and so far as the required facilities for teaching the same may be supplied. These will improve as time goes on. Trigonometry, astronomy, and psychology are college branches and as yet are not so common in the public schools. Still it is pleasant to note that even so difficult a subject as psychology made an increase of twenty-nine per cent. in the last three years—a considerably greater increase than the population of the schools.

No doubt, therefore, the "Harvard reform in entrance requirements" is in line with the changes that are manifest in the schools; or perhaps better, the schools are in line with the progress made at Harvard.

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PAUL JANET

Paul Janet, professor emeritus of the history of philosophy in the University of Paris, died in the latter part of September. He was born in Paris in 1823 and, after graduating from the

Ecole Normale Supérieure, taught philosophy for a while in provincial lycées. In 1856 he was called to the Lycée Louis-le-Grand, and was soon known as the best professor of philosophy in Paris. It was then not infrequent for a young fellow who had for years attended the classes of some other lycée to leave it a year before the end of his course in order to learn philosophy under Janet. A charmingly written book of practical ethics, *La famille*, which was crowned by the French Academy, made at this time his name known to the general public. To the same public he appealed again a few years later with a no less successful work, *La philosophie du bonheur*. A more serious outcome of his labors was the first editions of a work which he afterward considerably enlarged and thoroly remodeled, his *Histoire de la science politique dans ses relations avec la morale*.

In 1863 he left the Lycée Louis-le-Grand, having been promoted to the chair of the history of philosophy at the Sorbonne, which he occupied until his retirement from active work. He was admirably fitted for his new position. He was not a strong and original thinker. For an estimate of his own philosophical speculations it is enough, I think, to state that he remained to the last a belated disciple of Cousin. But he possessed a gift which his master never had. He knew how to present the views of others without misrepresenting them. When he was dealing with Kant's idealism or with English utilitarianism, with Comte's positivism, or even, as in *Le matérialisme contemporain*, with doctrines which he simply abhorred, he was always well informed and candid. He has certainly done more than any other man to familiarize the French public with the general progress of philosophy. He never refused to study anything new, and his wideawake curiosity led him to investigate every system and every method.

His style was eminently lucid and far from unpleasant. He was a member of the Academy of the Moral and Political Sciences and would certainly have been of the French Academy, if his total absence of self-conceit had not prevented his being a candidate.

His interest in literary matters was of the keenest: witness his books on *Les passions et les caractères dans la littérature*

du dix-septième siècle, and his monograph on Fénelon in Hachette's Série des grands écrivains français.

His own philosophical views are best expressed in his *Principes de métaphysique et de psychologie*, which appeared only two years before his death.

Bibliography: *Essai sur la dialectique de Platon* (1848), enlarged and republished in 1861 as *La dialectique dans Platon et dans Hegel*; *La famille* (1856; 13th ed., 1890); *Histoire de la philosophie morale et politique* (1858, enlarged and republished in 1872 and 1887 as *Histoire de la science politique dans ses rapports avec la morale*); *philosophie du bonheur* (1863; 5th ed., 1891); *Le matérialisme contemporain* (1863; 5th ed., 1888); *La crise philosophique* (1865); *Le cerveau et la pensée* (1867); *Eléments de morale* (1869); *La morale* (1874); *Philosophie de la révolution française* (1874; 4th ed., 1892); *Les causes finales* (1874); *Saint-Simon et les Saint-Simoniens* (1872); *Cours de morale à l'usage des écoles normales* (1880); *Traité de philosophie* (1880); *Les maîtres de la pensée moderne* (1883); *Victor Cousin et son œuvre* (1885); *Histoire de la philosophie: les écoles et les problèmes* (1887; with Professor Séailles); *Les lettres de Madame de Grignan* (1888); *Les passions et les caractères dans la littérature au XVIIe Siècle* (1888); *Histoire de la révolution française* (1889); *Lectures variées de littérature et de morale* (1890); *Fénelon* (1892); *Principes de métaphysique et de psychologie* (1897).

In addition to the above, Professor Janet published translations from St. Augustine and Spinoza and a number of articles, papers, and reports, which have not yet been collected in book form.

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VIII

REVIEWS

Educational aims and educational values—By PAUL H. HANUS, assistant professor of the history and art of education, Harvard University. New York : The Macmillan Company. 1899, vii + 211 p. \$1.00.

Those who know Professor Hanus and have heard him lecture, hail with pleasure the publication of this book. It has been felt by some that there are certain things about secondary education that he could say better than almost anyone else. He is a man who early came into sympathy with the sociological spirit of the day and felt its bearing on education. His insight into educational problems is good, his experience wide, and his power of expression admirable. Indeed, in respect to this latter point he has an unusually happy faculty for stating things strongly, clearly, and strikingly, and if one undertook to mark with a pencil all passages in his book that are more than ordinarily impressive or suggestive, he would find that on some pages almost every sentence would be underscored.

The book, as the author says, is written for "laymen who are interested in education, as well as for professional students and teachers, and consists of a series of essays on contemporaneous educational problems." To those who attend the more important educational meetings and read the best educational literature, some of the chapters of this book are old friends. For instance, there have appeared in the *EDUCATIONAL REVIEW*: chapter i, Educational aims and educational values; chapter iii, Attempted improvements in the course of study; chapter v, Secondary education as a unifying force in American life; and chapter viii, The permanent influence of John Amos Comenius; while most of the New England high-school men and many in other States have been quickened by the lecture on What should the modern secondary school aim to accomplish? which appears in this book as chapter iv.

It is perhaps needless to say that these essays make a very

readable book, no part of which is dry. It might seem to most people, perhaps, that a chapter on The preparation of the high-school teacher of mathematics (chapter vi) would prove to be neither entertaining nor especially profitable to any but those interested in mathematics, yet as a matter of fact it is exceedingly interesting and suggestive to all. That it is entirely practical too, notwithstanding its high ideals, may be known from the fact that its theories are actually in practice in at least one of our great normal schools, that at Ypsilanti, Mich.

In the chapter on the study of education at Harvard University, the need of sound study of education at the universities, for secondary teachers in general and for superintendents and principals in particular, is strongly stated, the responsibility of the universities in supplying this need is shown, and the course in education at Harvard is mapped out. We think this chapter may impress some readers, especially normal-school teachers, as the most practical and helpful part of the book. And, by the way, how meager is the course in education in the average normal school as compared with this!

But to most readers the first five chapters will undoubtedly appeal most strongly. I venture to say that they will prove to be brimful of new ideas to many who read them. The arraignment of the old-line schools and the old education, in chapter iii, ought to be read by every teacher and parent in the country. In these chapters, too, one comes across fine discussions of the questions that are always pushing to the front in high-school circles: the function of the high school, the great "gap," the curriculum, commercial education, training in the industrial arts and domestic sciences, school extension or the wider sphere of public secondary education—these and other matters are discussed and, indeed, are so sensibly put that a high-school man rises from the reading of this book fully alive with the inspiration which it generates, and determined that his work shall fall more into line with its theories.

I approve most heartily of Professor Hanus's position when he protests against "organizing our public secondary schools so that our classical high, English high, manual-training high, and, latest of all, our commercial high schools have

often little or no connection with each other" (pp. 125, 126). My personal feeling has long been that some of the best ends of secondary education are seriously interfered with by this really disorganizing tendency. In my opinion the most ideal educational plants that we have seen after visiting several hundred secondary institutions, are those at Hartford, Conn., and Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, where boys and girls may take a course in Greek in connection with a course in manual training or domestic science; or, while taking a commercial course, are not excluded from the possibility of taking purely cultural studies.

Professor Hanus has done so well in these discussions that we wish he had felt called to undertake one thing more. It may not be exactly in line with the purpose of his book, and it may be treading on exceedingly controversial and dangerous ground, but following a philosophy so subversive of the old-line aims and values and curriculum we cannot help wishing that a chapter had been devoted to the outlining of a high-school curriculum, going fully enough into details to show the succession of studies, term by term and year by year, the elective possibilities, the hours per week, all arranged in courses that would approximate the needs of a twentieth-century high school. Theories that go so radically at things, be these theories ever so cleverly and persuasively put, are always listened to with something of disappointment by at least the layman or the beginner, if they do not lead to something constructively practical. In regard to this vital matter of the secondary-school curriculum, which to high-school principals and teachers is of the supremest importance, we are certain that Professor Hanus has very definite and very valuable opinions, and we trust he will formulate them some day for the public good.

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Ensayos sobre educacion, teorica, practica y experimental—Por MANUEL VALDES RODRIGUEZ. Habana: 1898. 2 vols. 240, 425 p.

I have twice before called attention to Dr. Rodriguez.¹ He is a man about fifty years old, most of them spent in doing

¹ EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, 3: 287; 5: 75

yeoman's service in the cause of Cuban education. Being the first president of the first Cuban Teachers' Association and a tireless publicist, he has accomplished two herculean feats, the difficulty and importance of which it requires some personal familiarity with educational work in the Spanish-American tropics to appreciate. He has established at Havana co-educational common-school work on American principles, and he has organized from among the leading men of Havana a group persistently determined to support him.

Since then, under the auspices of the *Sociedad económica de amigos del país*, which had formerly sent Dr. Rodriguez to the United States to perfect his knowledge of American schools, the present work was collected and published. The entire group of schools established by the society was under his direction, comprising both sexes, both races, and both day and night schools. At the present moment, since Dr. Rodriguez is a keenly appreciative judge of American methods, and their stanch and persistent defender against the lifeless routine under which Cuba lies torpid, the significance of the work which he has achieved and of the position which he has established cannot be overestimated in its effect upon the immediate future. In the Spanish-American tropics, whatever is done is done by a few eminent individuals, owing to the existing social conditions.

Within my limits I cannot hope to do justice to the varied interest of these extensive volumes, indicating, as they do, the high-water mark of what has thus far been done in Cuba for popular education. A few intimations of their contents and their mode of treatment is all that I must allow myself. The bright terseness of statement, which I endeavored to preserve in my extracts from Dr. Rodriguez's *Comparison of French and American schools*,² is by no means lacking. Two illustrations must suffice, tho it would be easy to collect two score.

Wishing to set up the contention that the old-time Spanish regard for intellectual capacity exclusively is by no means sufficient for popular educational activity, but must be seconded by pedagogical ability to express and impress one's self, and sustained by hygienic robustness of physique, he is bluffly

felicitous in stating his thesis thus: "The teacher's activity revolves around three axes: his brains, his larynx, and his stomach." Usually, however, the temper of his blade is more subtle. The establishment of the first and only normal school in Cuba was not accomplished until shortly before Spanish rule came to a close. It is narrowly wedded to antiquated routine, object-teaching is eschewed, and the old vacuous verbalism rampant. In his attack upon these misusers of textbooks, Dr. Rodriguez says one of the brightest things in the two volumes: "Books are not material objects. A book is a psychological fact." The general tone, nevertheless, of the whole work is one of self-restrained seriousness and earnest zeal for a high cause. At times there is the laconic somberness of a man who, working under discouraging conditions, knows that the facts are more eloquent than declamation. Of this nature are many of his child-studies. They reach their acme in the note on a nine-year-old *reconcentrado* child. It reads like a paragraph from Defoe's *History of the plague in London*.

Child-life is sad. Slavery has not only bequeathed a freed-man's problem, but, being coupled with absolute denial of self-government, has left the whites helpless and unpractical both as individuals and in their corporate capacity. Tropical human bodies develop most swiftly between the ages of three and six and so—alas!—do minds, with all that thence follows. Worst of all, however, is the mediæval separation of discipline from instruction, the latter being imparted by the *maestro* or *profesor*, the former by the *pedagogo*. Boys are compelled to kneel on the floor. The punishment is aggravated by compulsion to hold the head also to the floor. One boy, kept thus for two hours, was unable to rise. Women are not more merciful. A girl is called a donkey and, to convince her of the appropriateness of the appellation, is forced to nibble at the grass on all-fours in the school yard. I omit other and graver instances.

In contrast to all this is the grave and gentle warmth of the writer's own enlightened zeal, faith, and insight, in a varied and practical discussion ranging thru all the phases of home education, reciprocity of school and environment, psychology,

methodology, and object lessons. Many of the essays were delivered orally and appeal with much of the supple immediacy of conversation. There is a good deal of brain-to-brain talk. But there is nothing too shallow to be of permanent value, nothing too deep for the public intended to be reached. Let us hope that it will be reached.

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NOTES ON NEW BOOKS

Mention of books in this place does not preclude extended critical notice hereafter

The appearance of Superintendent Speer's *Advanced arithmetic* will be hailed with delight by all who have been awaiting the completion of this scientifically constructed series. Dry and dull formalism in arithmetical teaching will not long exist in the refreshing atmosphere created by Superintendent Speer's treatment of the ratio of sensibly-perceived magnitudes as the key to the apprehension of all arithmetical processes (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1899. xx + 261 p. 60 cents).—Mr. Frank H. Hall's *Elementary arithmetic* and *Complete arithmetic*, altho written along traditional lines, constitute a helpful contribution to arithmetical literature (New York: Werner School Book Co., 1899. 248 p., 35 cents; 447 p., 60 cents).—A revision of Beman and Smith's *Geometry* has appeared in the guise of their *New plane and solid geometry*. The excellences of the former edition have been retained, while the innovations introduced render the revision a still more valuable text-book (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1899. ix + 382 p. \$1.50).—Dr. Joseph Torrey's *Elementary studies in chemistry* presents, in our opinion, a happy combination of the text-book and laboratory manual methods of approaching the subject (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1899. viii + 487 p. \$1.25).—A *Laboratory manual* for the use of college students of general chemistry appears from the pen of Professor H. W. Hillyer (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1899. vi + 200 p. 90 cents).—A helpful text-book on the *Elements of physics* has been written by Professor Henry Crow for the use of high-school students (New York: The Mac-

millan Co., 1899. xiv + 347 p. \$1.10).—The material for the first year's work in Greek is admirably arranged in Dr. L. L. Forman's *A first Greek book*, which functions as an excellent introduction to the *Anabasis* (New York and London: Harper & Bros., 1899. vii + 160 p. \$1).—The Contemporary Science Series has been increased by the addition of the *History of the European fauna*, by Dr. R. F. Scharff of the Dublin Science and Art Museum. The book is attractively written and is fully abreast of the latest researches (New York: Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, 1899. 364 p. \$1.50).—Professor Frank M. Colby's *Outlines of general history* is well-proportioned, clear, and interesting. The illustrations are particularly well chosen and well executed (New York: American Book Co., 1899. 610 p. \$1.25).—A thoroly sound and helpful book is *Studies in European history: Greek and Roman civilization*, by Dr. F. M. Fling of the University of Nebraska. The real teacher of ancient history or of the classics will not willingly do without it (Lincoln, Neb.: J. H. Miller, 1899. 163 p. 50 cents).—The indefatigable Canon Isaac Taylor has prepared a new and revised edition of his highly interesting *History of the alphabet*, which first appeared sixteen years ago (New York: Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, 1899. 2 vols., 360, 398 p. \$5).—We wish to call particular attention to the value of *Principles of literary criticism*, by Professor Winchester of Wesleyan University, a volume full of stimulating and constructive thought (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1899. 352 p. \$1.50).—The newer spirit and method of teaching literature are also exemplified in *The development of the English novel*, by Assistant Professor Cross of Yale, which contains some acute critical judgments and some interesting comparative studies (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1899. 327 p. \$1.50).—It is a pleasure to meet with a bit of serious thinking so clearly expressed as is Dr. Walter Smith's *Method of knowledge* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1899. 340 p. \$1.25).

IX

EDITORIAL

Verbum Insipientibus

In view of an extraordinary report which has recently been adopted by the school board for the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx in the city of New York, and in view of some things said in the discussion of that report which lacked any basis in fact, it may be worth while to make the statement which follows:

At no time and in no place has the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW asserted that the present Tammany school board, or any member of it, was "impressed by the 'cohesive power of public plunder.'"

The Committee on the National University Project

On November 2 and 3 an important meeting of the National Educational Association's committee to make a thoro inquiry into the plan for a national university, was held at Washington. This committee, it will be remembered, was authorized by the National Council of Education in July, 1898, and a report from it is hoped for in July, 1900. Twelve of the fifteen members of the committee were present at the meeting recently held, namely, Presidents Harper of Chicago University (chairman), Eliot of Harvard, Schurman of Cornell, Draper of Illinois, Alderman of North Carolina, and Wilson of Washington and Lee; Librarian Canfield of Columbia University; Dr. J. L. M. Curry of Washington; Superintendents Maxwell of New York, Soldan of St. Louis, and Dougherty of Peoria; and Professor Butler of Columbia University. President Angell of Michigan and Professor Moses of California were unavoidably absent from the meeting, as was Professor James of Chicago University, who is in Europe.

The committee devoted its first session to listening to the reports on topics previously assigned to some of its members for investigation. The first of these was the careful paper on the constitutionality of a national university by Professor James, which appears in full in this issue of the REVIEW. Then followed short papers on the history of past efforts to establish a national university, by Mr. Canfield; on the bill now being urged upon the Congress by the so-called committee of one hundred, by Professor Butler; on the funds and bequests supposed to be available for a national university, by Professor Butler; on the action taken by the presidents of the land-grant colleges in asking the Government to extend to their students certain facilities at Washington, by President Harper; on existing educational institutions and agencies in Washington, by President Eliot; on the collections and establishments of the Government available for higher instruction and research, by President Eliot; and on the probable attitude of existing universities toward the proposal to establish a national university at Washington, by President Angell.

These reports placed before the committee in concise yet comprehensive form the information necessary to take up intelligently the main question before them. The committee had full and free discussion of the pending scheme, and of some more acceptable and practicable method than it appeared to afford of utilizing the resources of the Government at Washington in aid of the higher education of the country. The committee finally agreed unanimously upon the following five propositions, much time and care having been devoted to the formulation of the fourth one:

1. It has been, and is, one of the recognized functions of the Federal Government to encourage and aid, but not to control, the educational instrumentalities of the country.

2. No one of the bills heretofore brought before Congress to provide for the incorporation of a national university at Washington commends itself to this committee as a practicable measure.

3. The Government is not called upon to maintain at the Capital a university in the ordinary sense of that term.

4. That a sub-committee be requested to prepare for consideration by the full committee a detailed plan by which students who have taken a baccalaureate degree, or who have had an equivalent training, may have full and systematic advantage of the opportunities for advanced instruction and research which are now or may hereafter be afforded by the Government;

such a plan to include the co-operation with the Smithsonian Institution of the universities willing to accept a share of the responsibility incident thereto.

It is understood that the financial administration of this plan should be such that, whether or not Government aid be given, there shall be no discouragement of private gifts or bequests.

It is understood that the scope of this plan should be indicated by the governmental collections and establishments which are now available, or as they may hereafter be increased or developed by the Government for its own purposes.

5. The Government, thru the State Department, might wisely maintain in Washington a school for consuls, analogous to West Point and Annapolis, and like those schools, leading to a life career in the Government service.

The sub-committee appointed under the fourth proposition consists of President Harper, Dr. Curry, and Professor Butler. A full report is expected from this sub-committee in February, as the full committee adjourned to meet in Chicago at the time of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence.

The fifth proposition, relating to a school for consuls, was referred to a sub-committee consisting of Presidents Wilson and Schurman and Dr. Canfield, who will also report in February.

It will be noticed that the action of the committee looks toward the fullest possible development and utilization of the educational resources of the Government at Washington, but in a manner which will involve the co-operation and support of existing institutions and agencies rather than the erection of a statutory university organized along the familiar university lines and duplicating, at unnecessary expense, work already in progress in different States thruout the country. That a workable and helpful plan will be developed by the committee along these lines, we confidently believe. Such a plan, by avoiding the difficulties and dangers of the scheme for a statutory university, while accomplishing all that is good or useful in that scheme, ought to obtain wide-spread, if not unanimous, support.

University Problems in Germany

Some interesting and suggestive words on German universities reach us from Greifswald in the *Festrede*, delivered by Professor Ernst Bernheim on assuming the rectorship of the university for the

current year. In his address, bearing the title "Die gefährdete Stellung unserer deutschen Universitäten," Professor Bernheim insists that certain reforms must be immediately brought about if the universities of the Empire are to maintain their present supremacy.

The speaker saw dangers threatening the universities from various quarters. The first is the state. Circumstances have more and more placed the management of the universities in the hands of the government. No university can take the initiative in making changes for its own special interest, nor can one government make innovations in behalf of its universities without the consent of the other states of the Empire. An example will best show the difficulties growing out of such a system. The Prussian government has been trying for a long time to shorten the unnecessarily long period allowed for matriculation at the beginning of each semester, but has been unable to bring about this small reform owing to the opposition or indifference of other states. To work against these evils, Professor Bernheim suggests an association of university representatives meeting at regular intervals for the discussion of common interests.

A second difficulty under which the universities are laboring is the double duty of advancing pure science and furnishing the state its higher officials and its professional men. The state examinations (not under the control of the universities) determine the work of the university much more than its own examinations. Each duty must be performed. How to combine them is, in the opinion of Professor Bernheim, the educational problem of the German universities *par excellence*. The seminars and laboratory exercises owe their existence to this problem, the first seminars being practice exercises for future teachers. Professor Bernheim would like to see the seminar made still more practical and its province extended. At present it is for advanced students pursuing special lines of work. This, the professor says, should be changed and practical exercises (*praktische Uebungen*) introduced into the very first semester of the students' course in connection with the lectures which now play altogether too prominent a part. Such a change would do much to prevent the practical loss of

the first semesters of the German students' course, a loss which the Greifswald rector regrets extremely, in opposition to the many who consider the *Bummeljahr* a necessary part of a university career. It is interesting to note that what is here proposed is very much like the recitation, which is being more and more crowded out of American college work. Instructors of Freshmen and Sophomores may well pause before they substitute the lecture for the recitation.

The German university has rivals in the field menacing its position as leader in the higher education. The technical schools (*technische Hochschulen*) are now clamoring for the right to confer a doctor's degree. If the university closes its doors to the crowd of applicants who have not had the preparation of the gymnasium, these rivals will flourish at the expense of the university. If all are admitted who ask, it is felt that the standard of the university will be lowered. Whom to receive and whom to exclude is the most troublesome question of the hour.

According to Professor Bernheim the time has come when the German universities must cease posing as models merely. They must look about them and discover what they can learn from foreign sources. The professor practices what he preaches, and has various suggestions to make as the result of his observation. He is acquainted with the reports of the American Commissioner of Education and the leading universities. He would like to see technical studies combined with literary studies, as in various American institutions. The establishment of complete technical faculties at the universities would prevent their threatened exclusion from all technical education. Parallel courses for women in certain medical subjects are also recommended. In fact, all his suggestions from foreign sources are drawn from this side of the Atlantic. This illustrates the position we have long maintained, that the best American universities have now something to teach their German progenitors. Professor Bernheim puts it thus: "They [foreign universities] wish to learn from us in order to excel us. We, on the other hand, are beginning to rest on our laurels in a superiority which will soon belong to past facts if we do not bethink ourselves of the hard reality."

Educational Unification in New York State

Governor Roosevelt has appointed the following admirable commission in response to the resolution passed at the university convocation in June last, to recommend to the incoming legislature a plan for unifying the educational work of New York State by doing away with the present dual organization:

Frederick W. Holls of Yonkers (chairman); Daniel H. McMillan of Buffalo, Robert F. Wilkinson of Poughkeepsie, Joseph F. Daly of New York, William E. Kernan of Utica, Secretary Melvil Dewey of the University of the State of New York, and Deputy State Superintendent D. E. Ainsworth.

New Yorkers will recognize in these names a thoroly strong and representative body of men, skilled in framing and in executing important public policies. From a commission so constituted a wise and practical plan is far more likely to issue than from one made up of representatives of different educational interests, each holding a brief for his own. We venture to suggest that if the commissioners will consent to be guided by the following principles, their work will be almost certain to meet with the approval both of the people and of the legislature:

1. There must be real and permanent, not apparent and superficial, unification.
2. There should be the fewest changes possible in the existing statutes, provided only that unification be secured.
3. The plan proposed should be open to adoption by the legislature at once, and should not require constitutional amendment.

Notes and news

In *Manual général de l'instruction primaire* for October 28, Professor Will S. Monroe of the Westfield (Mass.) State Normal School, prints an interesting letter, entitled *Comment on enseigne la pédagogie aux Etats-Unis*.

We observe that the absurd and groundless charge, many times refuted by authoritative statistics, that education in the United States is a failure and that it contributes to the increase of crime, was once more repeated in a paper before the Church Congress in England by a gentleman named T. C. Horsfall.

Surely it is time that serious bodies were relieved from the necessity of listening to nonsense of this sort.

The progress of the higher commercial education is well indicated in the report lately issued of the work done during the first year, which ended in July, 1899, of the High School of Commerce affiliated to the University of Leipzig. The number of students was 174, of whom 126 were German subjects and 48 foreigners, from Austria-Hungary, Russia, Belgium, Switzerland, Bulgaria, France, Roumania, Great Britain, Italy, Holland, Norway and Sweden, Greece, and Servia. As many as twenty-three of the students took the course provided for the instruction of intending teachers of commercial science. There were sixteen university professors and lecturers and nine other teachers. The winter session of 1899-1900 began on October 16, for which courses have been provided under five heads: 1. University lectures in economic theory, and economics of trade and industry in particular; practical economics, finance, statistics, and sociology; history of trade; commercial law, law of bills, international law, and maritime law; law of insurance; economic geography; chemical technology; history of the German idea of unity and development of nationality; Chinese and Japanese languages; industrial hygiene; school hygiene; history of German literature, and interpretation of Bürger, Goethe, Schiller; and history of English literature. 2. Practical drill at the commercial institute; bookkeeping, correspondence, and counting-house work, and commercial arithmetic. 3. Commercial teachers' seminary: lectures, discussions, criticism of lessons given by students. 4. Language courses: correspondence in French, English, Italian, Russian, and Spanish, with special drill in French and English conversation. 5. Dexterity: shorthand (alternative systems) and type-writing. The libraries of the university and of the chamber of commerce are both freely open to the students.

The more the Brooklyn local committee system is ventilated the worse it is seen to be. Here are two more contributions to the literature of the subject:

So thoroly engrafted is the belief that under the local committee system of appointment the recognition of good work cannot be secured

without political influence that candidates on the eligible line refuse to go to the borough of Brooklyn. The trustee system, which prevailed in the old city of New York, but was abolished after a fight of several years in the legislature of the State, was no greater menace to the educational system at that time than is the local committee system now dominant in the borough of Brooklyn.—*The Outlook*, November 4.

There are few more capable City Superintendents of Education than William H. Maxwell, of this city, who has just got into difficulty with his Board of Education, which refused to print his annual report until its criticisms could be answered. Superintendent Maxwell has attacked a ridiculous and antiquated plan that prevails in Brooklyn to the detriment of the schools, by which appointments and promotions of teachers are not under the control of the Superintendent, nor under any system of merit, but depend on the favor of the local members of the School Board, so that teachers desiring a position have to besiege the members of the board at their places of business, not a dignified procedure for young women just graduated from the normal school. For this miserable plan, under which teaching goes by favor, Mr. Maxwell would substitute eligible list of applicants graded according to their qualifications, and appointed strictly in the order of merit. One can understand the unwillingness of the elected members of the School Board to subordinate their own power and political privileges to the interests of children. Unfortunately there are whole States in which a similar vicious system of personal favoritism controls public schools, with abundant scandalous evils. We have known a young lady teacher, compelled to look up a member of a School Board, and finding him barefoot, attending to his duties in his city saloon, not very far from the East River.—*The Independent*, October 26.

The duty of school boards is undoubtedly to select the best-equipped teacher that can be found for the money, whether she comes from Philadelphia or the Philippines. Not only a duty, but a sworn duty, that no plea of ward lines can set aside, no allegiance to a ward leader can palliate or excuse.

The principle to be contended for by every citizen, whether teacher or not, is that the governing body shall be fully responsible, and that this responsibility can only be secured when it is based upon professional foundations. So based, neither State, county or ward lines would possess value in the selection of a teacher.

The schools were never created for the teacher. They were never founded in order that this or that person shall be provided with a position by which she can be supported. They were established only and solely for the education of the youth of the country, and any provision of any school board, whether in Chicago or Philadelphia, that serves to weaken or nullify this intention is a disregard of a sworn duty.

The above quotation, from the *Philadelphia Teacher*, embodies the vital principle of the administration of public education, and ought to be blazoned on the walls of every meeting-

place of a board of education or its committees. Properly painted, it would make a fit mural decoration for the new hall of the New York Board of Education and for that of the school board for the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx.

The actual expenditures of the University of Chicago, for the year ending June 30, 1899, were as follows:

Administration and General Expenses, ...	\$ 55,955 65
Faculties of Arts, Literature, and Science, ...	353,570 11
Divinity School, ...	62,661 84
Morgan Park Academy, ...	39,977 60
University Extension, ...	43,417 57
Libraries, Laboratories, and Museums, ...	49,313 19
Printing and Publishing, ...	44,027 75
Physical Culture, ...	7,310 59
Affiliated Work, ...	2,898 14
Buildings and Grounds, ...	63,129 80

Total, ...	\$721,262 24
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